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This document contains reports of research findings considered of special relevance for school board members. The introduction summarizes the project which involved selecting, abstracting, analyzing, and interpreting research on 27 topics. Each of the 27 resumes (written in "layman's language") includes questions, review of studies, implications, and references. Titles are Causes of Teacher Militancy; Community Support for Education; Elections Involving School Issues; Issues and Settlements in Teacher Strikes; Decisive Factors in Potential Strike Situations; Evaluation of School Public Relations Programs; Approaches to School-Community Relations; Public Opinion of the Schools; Trends in Teacher Strike Activity; Teacher Turnover: Why Teachers Leave Their Jobs; Public Expectations of Boards of Education; Mass Media in School-Community Relations; Teacher Interview and Selection Techniques; Joint Endeavors of the Community and School; Decision-Making and Budgets; Communicating with the Public; Recruitment Sources: Where to Find New Teachers; Decision-Making and Systems Analysis; Techniques for Recruiting Teachers; Teacher Evaluation Methods; Teacher Selection Practices: Summary of a Conference; Letters of Recommendation in Teacher Selection; School and Community Conflict; Power Structure Relation to School Boards; The Impact of Collective Negotiations upon the Schools; Decision-Making by Groups and Individuals; Adoption of Educational Innovations; School Board Participation in Administrator Selection. Appendixes include the advisory committee reports and 60 research abstracts. (JS)

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FINAL REPORT

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESEARCH FOR SCHOOL BOARD MEMBERS

Project No. 8-0606
Grant No. OEG-0-9-520606-0781(010)

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SUMMARY OF PROJECT

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Title: Analysis and Interpretation of Research for School Board Members

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Typically, American public schools are controlled by boards of education representative of the public the schools serve. Schools have become big business, often the biggest business of their governmental jurisdiction or community. School board members constantly make decisions involving large sums of money or which will have an impact for a number of years. Perhaps more important, school board members daily make decisions influencing the pattern of education, including educational programs of youngsters. Decisions which these board members must make are often based upon less than reliable information and, more often than not, on information which is not founded on research. The broad spectrum of school board decisions indicates that there is no single area of research which is the only area for analysis, interpretation, and dissemination.

Educators involved in the daily business of administering schools seldom have time to embark on a program of reviewing research for presentation to their school board members. Even when they review the research, the administrators do not always have the time or the skill to translate research findings into a language which is readily understandable by lay persons. Finally, few administrators have time to encourage school boards to apply research findings to specific problems in the school district. As a result, school board decisions are often based more upon folklore than fact. This is not to imply that school board members are disinterested, but rather that the language of education and educational research may be unfamiliar to them. School board institutes have provided school board members with information relating to topics of interest and often relating to critical issues in the school. These institute programs, however, seldom have been based upon research, but rather have been based upon writings or opinions of persons working in the areas of interest.

A Program for Analysis and Interpretation of Research

A need was seen to implement a program which would make research information readily available to school board members, which would analyze research findings of special relevance for the board function and translate this material into a form appropriate for assimilation by the school board audience. The purpose of this project was to serve the need of research dissemination for school board members. The audience was the major focus of the project, and pertinent research findings in several major areas of interest and emphasis were reviewed, analyzed, interpreted, translated, and made available to help school boards in their decision-making and policy formulation process. Since school board decisions have covered a wide range of activities, the project was aimed not at a single research topic in depth, but at the presentation in breadth of research findings relating to the role of the specific audience.

The project followed a procedure for reviewing vital research, abstracting and interpreting the research, and making it available in a language laymen could understand so it would be available to help school board members base decisions upon the best research data. Traditionally, school administrators and instructional personnel have had to work within a broad framework of guidelines set forth by decisions of school board members. While boards of education by themselves may not initiate change, they are in a position to influence or to hinder educational change and development. It is imperative, then, that school board members have at their fingertips for decision-making the kind of information which would allow their policy guidelines to be the most flexible and realistic in terms of the best programs of education available.

The project provided for a series of advisory committee meetings to help determine the limitations to be placed upon the research to be analyzed and interpreted. Advisory committee responsibilities included delimitations of the areas of research to be covered in the course of the project and assistance through review and suggestions in preparation of final dissemination reports.

Specific Goals and Objectives

Specific goals and objectives of the project were as follows:

1. To identify and select broad areas of concern to the school board decision-making process. An advisory committee implemented this step.

2. To select relevant research in each broad area of concern

that was selected.

3. To abstract and critique this research.

4. To select, utilizing a research screening committee, the most pertinent of that research which had been abstracted and critiqued.

5. To analyze and interpret research selected by the screening committee in each of the broad areas of concern in such a way as to make it understandable to the layman.

6. To develop a final report by subheadings of major areas of concern which would include the resume in layman's language of the research which had been analyzed.

7. To anticipate the actual repackaging and dissemination of this information to the school board members.

The Advisory Committee

The major emphasis of the project was upon selection of research and understanding of the audience. The advisory committee was to delimit the areas of emphasis for research analysis. Once the most pertinent of the research results had been chosen, those abstracts and the articles from which the abstracts had been taken were analyzed in depth in terms of problems of school boards. These analyzed results were then screened once more by the advisory committee. The remaining materials were then refined in language and situations familiar to the audience. A review panel made a final selection of all research results which had been analyzed and interpreted. Materials from this final selection were those which were ultimately prepared for dissemination by the school board audience.

The advisory committee recommended that the project limit its attention to the more critical and urgent immediate problems confronting school boards. There was a consensus that efforts of the project staff should concentrate within the following broad task areas: (1) community relations, (2) personnel and organization, and (3) policy formulation and decision-making.

Within these broad areas, the advisory committee recommended that some smaller specific topics be selected for intensive review. The project was to determine how to identify relevant sources for each topic and to organize available materials in such a way that information could be located easily. These first attempts were experimental in a sense, but they provided a growing basis of experience for refinement of techniques and operational methods as the project proceeded.

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STATEMENT OF APPLICABILITY

Funding groups have given priority to research studies done in large metropolitan areas. However, in reviewing the studies, the advisory committee believed the research findings and implications were very applicable and pertinent to all school systems.

CAUSES OF TEACHER MILITANCY

Teacher strikes and other overt forms of militancy have been an increasing problem for school administrators and board members for some time. Answers to certain questions about militancy have tremendous implications for those who must grapple with the realities of strike situations and find solutions for the problems which arise. If the causes are truly economic, as some would contend, then certain courses of action are clearly dictated. School authorities have to consider solutions which involve budgeting, fiscal support, and tax structure. On the other hand, if the keys to teacher militancy lie submerged in broader sociological issues, then economic diagnoses and treatments have the unfortunate consequences of relieving the symptoms without effecting a permanent cure.

Questions

Current literature on teacher militancy is characterized by a paucity of basic research and a plethora of opinion, by few answers but many ideas. Part of the difficulty stems from the abstract almost intangible nature of the subject itself.

1. What is militancy?

2. What are the basic reasons responsible for teacher strikes, sanctions, and general alienation of teachers from their publics?

3. Are the reasons commonly cited, those of salary and working conditions, actually at the root of the problem or are these issues merely superficial with deeper underlying causes responsible for the growing dissension in educational ranks?

Review of Studies

Although many of the current opinions remain essentially unsubstantiated by research, observers close to the action are generally in agreement. They tend to classify the reasons for teacher militancy in two major groupings. The first category includes economic reasons. Teachers are increasingly frustrated with economic inequity specifically and with the relative economic neglect of schools generally. The second category includes reasons related to change in working conditions and change in the fabric of the teaching profession. There has been a rapid decrease in the number of school districts and a consequent enlargement of the size of the average district. The number of young people in the teaching force, especially men, recently has been increasing steadily.

Teachers are attaining increasingly higher levels of preparation and competence (14).

Teacher salaries. In the forty years from 1925 to 1965 urban teacher salaries increased an average of 3.2 percent each year. During the same period teacher salary gains increased faster than consumer prices. Purchasing power of the teacher gained more than 90 percent, with half of this increment coming since 1951 (12).

The source of concern with teacher compensation is not that salaries have failed to increase--comparative earning trends indicate a sensitivity to pay changes for other groups of workers or to mutual factors affecting those changes--but that teacher pay has failed to keep pace with other occupational groups. In the period from 1939 to 1965, the average annual salaries of workers employed in eight broad occupational groups increased three and one-half times. This was proportionally greater in each case than average salaries of teachers which increased only two times in the same period (12). Over the post-war period to 1963, the proportional increase in teacher salaries nearly matched or bettered the pay gains of industrial workers. But teacher salaries started from a very low base. A generation ago teachers were paid less than industrial workers whose jobs required only an elementary education (18).

Between 1963 and 1965, all other groups outstripped teachers in salary gains. This was the time of the lowest rate of salary gain since the war, and it coincided with increased activity among teachers seeking improvements in their economic condition (11).

Recent surveys indicate that the disparity between teacher salaries and those of persons in other fields is increasing. As indicated in Table I, the difference in salary for beginning classroom teachers and college graduates entering private industry in 1965 was $1,867. By 1968, this figure had climbed to $2,430 (7,9).

Although salaries of beginning teachers are somewhat below starting salaries for college graduates in other fields, the largest discrepancies are to be found at the top of the scale. The compensation of mature teachers of exceptional competence falls substantially below that of equally competent people in many other vocations. Even the most talented elementary and secondary teachers in the nation rarely receive more than $12,000 per year (18).

The deterioration in economic position of teachers relative to other occupational groups has been accentuated by the recent slackening of annual salary gains. Teachers are paid better today than ever before. Yet they are unable to keep pace with their neighbors in other occupational fields. Teachers want to keep up with the Joneses.

TABLE I

AVERAGE STARTING SALARIES OF CLASSROOM TEACHERS COMPARED WITH THOSE IN PRIVATE INDUSTRY 1965-66 THROUGH 1967-68

	65-66	66-67	67-68	68-69
Total (all fields)	$6,792	7,248	7,836	8,280
Beginning Teachers	4,925	5,142	5,519	5,850
Difference	1,867	2,106	2,317	2,430

SOURCES: Economic Status of the Teaching Profession, 1967-68, Research Report 1968-R4 (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1968), p. 44; cited by Henry Knapp, "A Tribute to the 'Real' Fathers," Phi Delta Kappan, 49:576, June, 1968. Teacher salaries estimated by NEA Research Division for school systems enrolling 6,000 or more pupils; salaries for all fields are based on offers made to graduates by approximately 200 companies nationwide, from annual reports of Frank S. Endicott, Director of Placement, Northwestern University.

They demand the right to share equitably in the fruits of an affluent society (11, 14).

Changes in working conditions. The second factor in the upsurge of teacher restiveness is the changed working conditions and the changed fabric of the teaching profession. There has been a rapid decrease in the number of school districts with a consequent enlargement of the size of the average school district. Enlarged size of districts tends to impersonalize staff relationships. Communications between administration and staff become more complex and difficult. The result often is staff dissatisfaction and frustration, and a rebellious attitude tends to develop (14). Centralization of power in administration, great demand for conformity and impersonal relationships, factors which tend to increase with district size, are likely to be related to feelings of alienation from a school system (2).

Listen to a commentator on the Ocean Hill-Brownsville situation: "Sheer size is perhaps a major villain, for it was size that dictated that the board of education would become a monstrous, incredibly insensitive bureaucracy that was completely unable to deal with the city's changing racial patterns (13). New York board of education headquarters, said Time magazine in 1963, is "awash with able, well-intentioned administrators, but most of them live by the numbers and have lost touch with the troops in the trenches." Teachers punch time clocks, adhere to rigid lesson plans, and find supervisors too busy to talk. The biggest problem in New York City is a "paper curtain" that separates administration from the classroom teacher. Said Calvin Gross, superintendent at the time, "I know one girl who was in . . . (the central offices) . . . for six hours just looking for someone to find an application for teaching (15)."

In 1931 there were 127,422 school districts in the United States. By 1965 this number had dwindled to 24,500 operational districts (14). This tremendous growth in average system size and its accompanying difficulties have paralleled the growth of the so-called urban blight of the core cities. The gradual deterioration of schools in the great urban centers of the nation is exemplified by the New York City experience. Once a teacher's mecca boasting good pay and nationally known academic high schools, New York in 1962 had a lower starting salary than any of 104 surrounding school districts. The pay was so low for men that half of them worked an average of three hours a day moonlighting. Although the city still had some of the best specialized schools in the country and more than its share of national scholarship winners, signs of decline were evident. Schools of the central city were left stagnant by a steady migration of the middle classes to private schools and the suburbs. In place of these students there was a growing population of Negroes and Puerto Ricans. In 1963 these groups accounted for 76.5 percent of the elementary pupils in

Manhattan. They were more difficult to teach and highly transient. In some schools teachers ended the school year with a completely different set of students than they had had in the fall. One-third of all junior high school students were at least two years retarded in reading, ninety thousand children could barely speak English, and less than half of them graduated (4).

More men and young people in teaching. There has been a recent and steady increase in the number of young people, especially men in the teaching force. In the mid-fifties, about twenty-six percent of public school teachers were men. By 1964, this figure had risen to thirty-two percent. The median age of teachers in 1964 was approximately forty years, a drop from forty-three years in the mid-fifties (3, 14). The increasing numbers of men in education is definitely related to the upsurge in teacher militancy. Men are more favorably inclined than women toward teacher collective action including negotiations, sanctions, and strikes (5). In all but one of the nine states experiencing teaching strikes in March, 1968, the percentage of men in the teaching force was higher than the national average (10).

Professionalism increasing. A final and related factor contributing to the growth of teacher militancy is the rising level of professionalism in educational ranks. Teachers are demanding more authority and responsibility because of their increasing professional competency. Fewer teachers hold substandard credentials than ever before. The proportion of teachers holding bachelor degrees increased from 60 percent in 1947 to 90 percent in 1963. In the same time, the percentage of teachers holding master's degrees or higher increased from 15 to 25 percent (16). Many teachers today are better qualified than their administrators to make curriculum decisions and organizational plans (18). Although all militant teachers are not necessarily professional, the more professionally oriented teachers appear to be among the most militant. And the more professional teachers have the higher teaching credentials (6).

Professionalization by its very nature, says Ronald Corwin, must be a militant process. By definition, it is a drive for status. It represents the efforts of some members of a vocation to control their work, and in the process they will seek to take power from those groups which traditionally have controlled the vocation (6).

The basic underlying motive in teacher militancy, then, is a quest for power (17). The American school teacher today is younger, better educated, more active, and more highly skilled than ever before. At the same time, his services are in higher demand. Consequently he has become more demanding, more courageous, and more independent than ever before (1). He experiences a hunger for recognition as a professional with academic authority commensurate with his responsibilities (8).

Conclusions and Implications

A definitive general analysis of the continuing rise in teacher militancy is a hazardous undertaking. Probably no absolute answer to the problem exists. The growing militancy seems to be another manifestation of a general feeling of restlessness and frustration symptomatic of a time of change. Possibly it has common roots with labor strikes, urban riots, and student revolts. The militancy seems to stem in part from a dissatisfaction with economic factors, those related to compensation and public support of education. In part, the militancy derives from changes in working conditions, the white migration to the suburbs, the increase in size of school districts, and deterioration of the central cities. A final source of militancy is the change which is taking place within the teaching profession itself, more men in teaching ranks, and generally teachers which are more competent and unafraid to make themselves heard.

The problem of teacher militancy is not one soon to be resolved, but one which can be approached only with fortitude, patience, and understanding. The current wave of strikes will surely leave a permanent mark on public education, on community relations, methods of teaching, curriculum and administration. School boards and their administrators in actions and dealings with teachers must bear a certain responsibility to replace conflict with cooperation, to see that the mark of militancy is beneficial instead of detrimental to American children and their educational system.

--Sam P. Sentelle

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COMMUNITY SUPPORT FOR EDUCATION: ELECTIONS INVOLVING SCHOOL ISSUES

Bond issues and school tax proposals are usually submitted to an electorate for approval. The effects of such elections on community support for education make them a matter of great importance for those who are entrusted with administration of the public schools.

Questions

Research on elections involving school issues has attempted to answer some of the following questions:

1. How can voter support be increased for bond issues or tax proposals?

2. How does voter turnout affect the results of elections over bond issues and tax proposals?

3. How does the size of bond issues and tax proposals affect election results?

4. How are characteristics of the voter population such as income, education, and attitudes related to the results of elections involving school issues?

Review of Studies

Voting patterns. A number of studies have analyzed voting patterns in school bond and tax elections. Among the factors considered in these studies were voter turnout, size of the bond issue or tax levy in dollars, population characteristics, equity of tax burden, and district wealth. Some of the findings related to these factors are summarized below.

1. Voter turnout is defined as the proportion of eligible voters who vote in a given election. Carter (1), in a study which included districts from all parts of the United States, found that for districts of all sizes there was greater voter turnout where issues were defeated. The latter finding conflicted with conclusions from research in Iowa (7) in which it was found that the size of the issue was not related to percentage of favorable votes. In a study of Mississippi school districts (2) it was found that low voter turnout was associated with a favorable vote, while Willis (13) reported that in elections in Akron, Ohio, increases in voter turnout from one election to another were associated with increases in the proportion of favorable votes.

Considering only those districts which had voted favorably on school issues, Willis found that voter turnout ranged from very low to very high.

In a study of elections for school board vacancies in Cook County, Illinois, Minar (12) compared voter turnout to the level of dissent registered. Dissent was defined as the total of votes for losing candidates as a proportion of the total vote in the election. He concluded that districts with a high level of voter turnout were more likely to have an unfavorable vote on financial issues.

There is obviously no simple relationship between voter turnout and decisions on school issues. This kind of decision-making appears to be a complex process (7) requiring attention to a number of other factors.

2. Several researchers have studied population characteristics as they relate to voting behavior. Population size appears to have no relationship to outcomes in school elections (7). On the other hand, changes in the general make-up of the population do seem to have significance for voting patterns (6). Crider (2) found that an increase in the number of persons in the population between the ages of 21 and 45 was associated with success of school elections. Increases in the proportion of college-educated adults were reported by Hickrod (8) to be related to increased support for education in general. (Hickrod did not analyze election outcomes specifically.)

The social status of voters as determined by occupation, income and education has a relationship to proportion of favorable votes in school elections. This conclusion was reached in a study of school elections in Los Angeles (9). When the population was divided into four groups--low, low-middle, high-middle, and high--it was found that the highest level of support for school elections came from the areas classified as low, and the lowest level of support from areas classified as low-middle. Similar findings emerged in a study in Akron, Ohio (13), where districts were large non-public school enrollments, low educational level of the population, and large numbers of blue collar workers in general showed low levels of support for school elections.

3. An interesting finding from a study of voter behavior in school elections in Ohio was reported by Marlowe (10). He found that among individual voters there was a greater probability of a favorable vote on school issues among those whose property tax burden was equitable in relation to their income. Income and property tax payment were each divided into five ranked categories. "Yes" voters on school proposals were found more often to be renters or property owners whose tax payment was in a lower category than their income. Conversely,

"no" voters were more likely to have incomes in a category below their tax category. This finding may lead to a better understanding of voter behavior in school elections.

4. In general, it is to be expected that school districts in which per pupil wealth (as measured by tax assessments) is higher will show a higher level of support for education. This should be reflected by a higher proportion of favorable votes on school financial proposals. However, this expectation was not supported by findings from a study of elections in Iowa (7) which found that as evaluation increased, the percentage of favorable votes on financial issues decreased. On the other hand, in Iowa districts which had a 2.5 mill school levy there was greater likelihood of support for financial proposals. From these findings it appears that a previous history of support for education is the best indicator of future support and that ability to support education is not an indicator that support will be forthcoming.

Election campaign strategies. In view of conflicting findings about the effects of voter turnout on election outcomes, boards of education and superintendents are likely to be uncertain about what strategies to employ in conducting school elections. They may take the attitude that organized campaigns which increase voter turnout also increase the likelihood that the issue will be defeated, or they may feel that regardless of outcome the voters are entitled to full information about a proposed course of action. Evidence from research suggests that most of the techniques ordinarily employed in school elections have relatively little effect either way on the outcome. In the Iowa study (7), for example, of seven communications techniques studied, only one appeared to affect outcome. The techniques were brochures, posters, advertisements by merchants, sample ballots and voting information, sound trucks, mailings, and letters to editors. Letters to editors were related to unfavorable vote. Two other techniques appeared to be helpful. They were open public meetings and general talking up of the issue. Speakers at civic clubs, student presentations, clergy support, house-to-house canvasses and telephone committees were not related to election results. Supplying baby sitters for voters had no effect on the election, but providing cars to transport voters to the polls resulted in unfavorable outcomes.

Support of board members and other authorities was related to favorable outcomes in school elections in Mississippi (2). Other factors identified in that study as related to election results were month in which the election was held (September and October were the most favorable and April and December the most unfavorable months), soliciting support from the Negro community and pre-planning by educational authorities.

Several research studies have examined the role of community influentials in relation to support for education. Influentials are persons identified by residents of a community as having much influence on decisions made on public issues. Masse (11) concluded that in communities where influentials were involved with and supported the schools, there was a higher level of support for education. However, his research did not show that involvement and support were necessarily the cause of greater financial effort in those communities.

Diffie (5) assessed the civic attitudes and educational beliefs of three groups of persons in school districts in Illinois. He found that registered voters and persons identified as influential leaders in low effort districts held more liberal attitudes than comparable groups in high effort districts. Teachers in districts displaying a low level of support for education were conservative in both areas and teachers from districts with high support levels were liberal. The reasons for the disparity between attitudes held by teachers and the other two groups were not explained.

Conclusions and Implications

There are very few suggestions which can be offered to school board members as a result of the research summarized in this area. The strongest relationship between community characteristics and support for education involves factors over which board members have no control. These factors include, as examples, the social status of people in a community, kind and extent of change in population make-up, and a previous history of support for education. Other factors, over which boards of education might be expected to exert some influence, appear to be unrelated to level of educational support.

Two conclusions which can be drawn from the research are: (1) In general, informing the public about proposed bond issues or tax proposals by means of open meetings is likely to increase voter support for the proposal, and (2) pre-planning by school administrators and presenting needs to the public well in advance of the election date appears to have positive results. It should be noted that these generalizations are based on relatively few studies; further research may find that they cannot be supported. One additional conclusion coming out of research by Marlowe (10) is that boards of education should consider the equity of existing tax arrangements when submitting new issues to public vote.

--John T. Seyfarth

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ISSUES AND SETTLEMENTS IN TEACHER STRIKES

The teacher strike typically finds school board members unprepared in terms of information and experience to deal with the crisis. Often the conflicts are unintentionally inflamed by those who underestimate the significance of rapid contemporary changes in teacher attitudes and working conditions.

Questions

The review of issues and settlements in teacher strikes which follows will consider the following questions:

1. What are common characteristics of teacher strikes?
2. What patterns of issues and settlements have been established?
3. Has there been a consistent relationship between issues and settlements?

Review of Studies

Goergen and Keough at St. John's University completed an analytical study of teacher strikes in 1967. The investigation covered the decade from 1955 through 1965 and considered issues and demands of the striking teachers together with outcomes and settlements ultimately achieved. The researchers were able to group the forty strikes listed in their study into six definite patterns according to the basic issues involved: dismissal of personnel, demand for wage increase, unpaid back wages, poor state tax structure for support of education, collective bargaining, and both wage increase and collective bargaining (5).

Dismissal of personnel. Of the forty strikes studied, dismissal of personnel was an issue in three of the strikes. In each case the superintendent of schools was involved. In two cases the superintendent had been dismissed by the board of education, and in the third strike a major issue was denial of tenure status to a group of teachers by the superintendent. Outcomes of these strikes were favorable to the superintendents but unfavorable to the teachers. Both superintendents were reinstated but tenure denial to teachers was upheld. In all three strikes, a request for investigation was made to an outside agency, and these strikes were further characterized, more so than with strikes in other patterns, by displays of emotion and involvement of the general public.

In the Irving, Texas strike of 1955, which set a record for length of duration at fifty-nine days, a police guard was necessary. Following the dismissal of the superintendent by the board of education, most of the employees of the school system went on strike--clerical, custodial, and lunchroom personnel as well as teachers and principals. The board discharged the striking employees en masse, and attempted to operate the schools with volunteer workers. A little more than a month later, the taxpayers of the Irving school district called for a referendum and voted by a substantial margin to dissolve the district. By this action, in effect, the citizens dismissed the board of education. A new district with a new board of education was formed and the superintendent rehired at his former salary with back pay. Most of the teachers who had walked out were rehired by the new board, but they, unlike the superintendent, were not granted back pay. These results were true to the pattern in that outcomes tended to favor superintendents.

In each of the three cases classified by Georgen and Keough in this category, other issues reported were unilateral decision-making by the board of education and lack of effective vertical communication within the school organization.

Demand for wage increase. In seven of the forty strikes studied, demand for salary increase was the only apparent issue. A standard order of events was identified in this strike pattern: Teachers demanded a raise, the board refused their demands, teachers went on strike in protest, and usually the teachers were granted a wage increase after the first or second day of the strike. The settlement was usually a compromise, and in fiscally dependent school districts, the mayor usually became involved in settlement negotiations.

Unpaid back salaries. Unpaid back salaries was a principal issue in five of the forty strikes investigated by Goergen and Keough. The strikes in this pattern generally occurred in financially depressed areas and in districts in which tax payments were delinquent. Three of the five strikes occurred in Pennsylvania, a state which has a long record for delayed pay. All three strikes occurred in the eastern "anthracite region" of the state, and each differed in outcome.

The twenty-three teachers in Avoca refused to teach after working for more than three months without pay. Money was borrowed to compensate teachers for one month, and the strike ended the following day. Immediately following the strike, the board of education began a drive against tax delinquents. Estimated tax arrears involved enough money to pay teachers and support personnel for a full nine-month term. Teachers in West Mahanoy had taught without pay for over eight months when they went on strike. The school board reacted to the crisis by dissolving the school district. Pupils were transferred to other districts. Teachers were paid back salaries, but they lost their jobs.

Olyphant, Pennsylvania had had a quarter century history of erratic teacher compensation. At the time of the teacher strike reported in this district by Goergen and Keough, salaries were three months overdue. The board of education president had told teachers to "go on relief if they were so poor."[1] They went on strike instead. A delegation from the state department was sent to mediate. Teachers returned to classes twelve days later and were paid back salaries after the annual state tax appropriation. This solution had been initially rejected by the teachers. During the course of negotiations, as reported by the Scranton Times, the state department ordered Olyphant and other financially distressed school districts in the region to disclose salary records. The Olyphant District was operating at the time of the strike in 1958 on the same tax rate that it had had ten years earlier.[2] The school district was directed to raise tax rates to meet obligations.

A state department survey completed in 1958 showed over one million dollars in back salaries owed by four counties in this region. These counties were Lackawanna, Lucerne, Northumberland, and Schuylkill, all in the area identified by Friedman as a locality high in frequency of teacher strikes. Forty-six of the 130 strikes reported by Friedman occurred in Pennsylvania, and thirty-three of these were within the above mentioned four-county area (3).

Striking for back salaries has become relatively infrequent when compared with earlier periods. In most cases the lack of funds resulted from local failure to meet minimum revenue receipts for the state. The immediate outcome of these strikes has usually been a solution of the financial crisis. In Pennsylvania, the legislature in 1959 enacted the Distressed School Districts Act to enable the state to correct some of the conditions that caused the strikes (3, 5).

Poor state tax structure to support education. The fourth pattern observed by Goergen and Keough was one in which a poor state tax structure appeared to be the major contributing factor in strike situations. The conflict in the eleven strikes classified in this pattern appeared to exist between teachers and politicians rather than between teachers and school boards. Usually these strikes occurred in large city school districts. In other cases when the entire state struck, the more militant groups were to be found in the large urban areas. In all but one of these strikes, salary was a primary issue. Denial of a salary raise which teacher groups believed to be justified appeared to move teachers toward a strike. In many of these strikes the state level of educational support was below that of neighboring states.

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[1] The board president also indicated a belief that many of the teachers were delinquent in tax payments (5, p. 75).

[2] Taxes collected in 1948 totaled $134,000 as compared to $98,000 in 1957. Wage tax collections were $47,000 in 1948 and $11,000 in 1957 (5, p. 76).

Many teacher strikes as compared with industrial strikes have taken the form of protest to the public or the legislature rather than against the school authorities. The 1966 stoppage in Kentucky is illustrative: Most of the teachers observed a professional study day to protest the state education budget. The governor responded by establishing a special commission to make recommendations on additional means of financial help (4).

Seven of these eleven tax structure strikes occurred in New Jersey, in the northeastern part of that state near New York City. In instances where state laws prohibited strikes by government employees, teachers were absent from work because of "personal reasons." Such a strike was that of the teachers of Irvington in 1956. The Irvington schools were closed when 90 percent of the teachers failed to report for work one Monday morning due to "sickness." The teachers were asking for a raise of four hundred dollars across-the-board, and the school board supported the teachers in their demand. It was the president of the board of education who accused the town commissioners of creating financial difficulties and holding "secret discussions." The mayor, when he appeared at a teacher's meeting, was jeered by the audience.

The board of school estimate headed by the mayor refused to yield to teacher demands despite the support of those demands by the board of education and the superintendent. The budget had already been adopted, said the mayor and the board of estimate, and the tax rate was adjusted accordingly. To make a change in the budget by granting salary increases would be impossible and, furthermore, it would be legally improper. At the end of the school year, about 20 percent of the Irvington teachers resigned their positions (3).

In these strikes where the state tax structure was inadequate, the local demands for wage increases usually were not granted. In most instances, however, there was eventual though not immediate legislation to provide more money for education.

Collective bargaining. In teacher strikes of the collective bargaining category, a major demand was the right of teacher organizations to negotiate with school board members on the basis of equal status. Boards of education generally tended to resist these demands by citing statutes or their own bylaws. Sometimes a board would choose simply to ignore teacher demands. Board members in other instances made strong public statements that teacher representatives could not be considered equals in negotiations.

Goergen and Keough emphasize the negatives in the collective bargaining strike pattern. No evidence was found in any case where teachers, administrators, and board members attempted to reach a detailed agreement concerning mutual functions or roles. There was no instance in which board and administration questioned the competency of teachers to share the decision-making process. Finally, there was no instance in which board and administration attempted to obligate teachers to responsibilities commensurate with such a role. Attempts to establish collective bargaining rights, as these attempts appeared in strike situations, developed into power struggles in which teachers demanded and boards resisted. This is a theme that recurs frequently in the literature on teacher militancy: The underlying motivating force is not so much a protest over economic or working conditions as it is a quest for power.

For teaching, as a vocation, is in a process of professionalization. By its very nature, professionalization is a militant process. In essence, it is a drive for status representing the efforts of some members of a vocation to control their work. In seeking this control, the vocation will attempt to wrest power from those groups which traditionally have controlled the vocation (2).

Of the teacher strikes studied, collective bargaining was in six instances the principal or sole issue. In five of these strikes an issue of rivalry between teacher organizations was present. Injunctions, in two cases where they were used, were ineffective. There was litigation in both of these cases which had no apparent relation to the injunctions.

Salary increases and collective bargaining. In eight of the strikes studied by Goergen and Keough, collective bargaining was closely related to a demand for increased salary. Teacher groups were not deterred from their demands by legal deadlines for school budgets. In some cases, the board actually granted salary increases after the budget deadline. In these instances, all or part of the increases were financed by funds accumulated through non-payment of salaries during the strike. Power seems to have been a basic issue in this strike pattern, as well as salary. Teacher groups in these groups attempted to regulate the action of the school board. There were demands that teachers be accorded a degree of dignity and respect by their boards, that they be permitted to negotiate with boards as equals, and that negotiation rights be recognized in some form of written document. Interpretation of a written agreement was the basis of contention in three of the eight strikes.

Court injunctions ended most of the strikes in this pattern.

Teachers returned to school usually without realizing substantial settlement of their demands. Where salary increases were realized, these generally were very modest. No specific agreement by the school boards to share any part of the policy-making function resulted from any of the eight strikes. Teacher groups in these cases tended to give more publicity to gains which suggested teacher influence in the policy-making process, more than to financial gains.

Patterns related to outcomes. The St. John's study revealed that in every instance where unpaid back salary was a strike issue, a result of the strike was payment of this salary.

In strikes where salary was the only major issue, the result of the strike action was an actual increase in salary in all cases but one. The settlement was usually a compromise between salary demanded by the teachers and that offered by the board.

Where the state tax structure was a strike issue, an improvement in the tax structure occurred in every case within two years of the latest strike in this pattern. In most of the cases, teachers did not receive a salary increase.

Conclusions and Implications

Forty teacher strikes occurred in the decade from 1955 through 1965 according to Goergen and Keough. These strikes, they found, tended to follow definite patterns of demands and settlements (Table I). Eleven of the forty strikes appeared to grow out of problems related to state tax structure and state fiscal support of education. The issues in eight of the strikes involved collective bargaining and wage increases. Demand for wage increase alone was the primary issue in seven strikes; collective bargaining in six cases was the primary issue. Five strikes resulted from unpaid back wages, and personnel dismissal occasioned the remaining three strikes.

Probably no immediate definitive and satisfactory solution to the teacher strike exists. The best counsel seems to be that of patience and understanding. For while board members often have found themselves in difficult positions in strike situations, they have in many instances aggravated the conflict still further by rash actions and decisions made without adequate knowledge.

School boards generally underestimate the seriousness of the warning signals which precede a strike. The Woodbridge, New Jersey strike early in 1967 illustrates this point: The crisis according to one administrator was characterized by "bad personal relations, bad functioning and complete ignorance of a new kind of teacher--the

TABLE I

TEACHER STRIKES FROM 1955 TO 1966 ACCORDING TO PATTERNS IDENTIFIED BY GOERGEN AND KEOUGH

Pattern	Frequency
State tax structure	11
Wage increase and collective bargaining	8
Wage increase	7
Collective bargaining	6
Unpaid back wages	5
Dismissal of personnel	3
Total	40

teacher who is ready to clobber his community if his demands are not met." The problem was a lack of awareness, sophistication and realism in dealing with young and militant teachers (1).

Strikes appear to follow definite patterns as Goergen and Keough have indicated. This means that while there may be no set answers for board members and administrators, they might anticipate the difficulties and benefit from past experiences in other school systems.

--Sam P. Sentelle

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DECISIVE FACTORS IN POTENTIAL STRIKE SITUATIONS

Several factors, some more than others, appear to foment teacher strikes and potential strike situations. In dealing with these factors, board members and administrators often must assign priorities to their areas of concern. This task becomes critical in the school district faced with a strike threat, and the answers to the following questions can mean the difference between actual work stoppage and averted strike.

Questions

1. What factors are most important in teacher strikes and potential strike situations according to teachers?

2. What are the decisive factors in the teacher strike? In other words, what factors can spell the difference between strike and averted strike?

Review of Study

One known investigation has attempted to identify decisive factors in potential strike situations: In 1964, a comparison study testing differences in questionnaire responses by two groups of teachers was completed at the University of Mississippi. The first group of teachers had been involved in a strike. The second group had experienced a situation in which a strike had threatened but subsequently failed to materialize. The research attempted to identify especially those factors contributing to a strike situation which, when changed, might serve to avert the strike (1).

The study included every reported teacher strike and averted strike in the United States between 1952 and 1963. Strike votes, published threats, or verbal threats by acknowledged leadership were criteria for identification of potential strikes.

Questionnaire items, thirty-three in all, were categorized within four major classifications: economic, political, organizational structure, and personnel policy and job environment. Responses from 181 teachers, 113 in the strike group and 68 in the averted strike group, indicated a significant difference of opinion between the two groups on items related to organizational structure of local school districts.[1] Some of these items listed in order of relative importance are given here:

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[1] Overall significance of a t-score for seven items in this category was at the .02 level of probability.

(1) Boards of education were fiscally dependent on other government bodies. Responding teachers indicated fiscal dependence was an important contributing factor in situations where strikes had occurred, much more so than in other instances where strikes had been threatened but subsequently were averted.

(2) There was a failure to establish channels of communication between teachers and their various supervisors and administrators where strikes had occurred more so than in situations where strikes had been averted.

(3) Teachers were not permitted to participate in policy determination. This item was rated more important by the strike teachers than by the averted strike teachers.

Both groups were in agreement that certain economic factors had contributed to cause strikes and to create potential strike situations. Teachers went on strike or threatened strike over low salaries. Strike potential increased, the responding groups indicated, when demands for higher salaries and proposed salary schedules were rejected. In addition, the danger of strike increased upon failure of efforts to improve salary and welfare through bargaining procedures.

There were significant differences between the response groups on the following items:

(1) Limits on taxation contributed to create potential strike situations, but this factor was not considered nearly so important by teachers who had been in actual strikes.

(2) Likewise, defeat of a referendum for school tax increase was considered much more significant in potential strike situations than in actual strikes.

(3) Fiscal dependence of boards, as noted previously, was thought to be much more significant in actual strike situations than in potential strike situations.

(4) Inadequate working conditions and hours, according to the respondents, were more important in contributing to potential strike situations than as a contributing factor in actual strikes.[2]

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[2] Significance was determined by t-test on differences between means of response scores on each questionnaire item. Items (1) and (4) were significant at the .05 level, and item (3) was significant at the .01 level of probability. The t-score reported by Kite for item (2), no. 17 on the original questionnaire, (t= -4.762, df=167, p. 85) was significant at the .001 level.

Conclusions and Implications

Fiscal dependence of boards of education on other government bodies, according to teacher responses, has been a primary decisive factor between teacher strike incidents and potential strike situations. The study also noted that strike potential increased whenever wage demands were rejected and upon failure of collective bargaining procedures. These factors, in all likelihood, are related: Conceivably, in many instances of threatened strike, wage demands were rejected and bargaining procedures failed simply because of the fact that the board was fiscally dependent. As a consequence of this dependence, the board lacked the necessary flexibility for dealing with the problems at hand.

--Sam P. Sentelle

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EVALUATION OF SCHOOL PUBLIC RELATIONS PROGRAMS

If public relations programs are to be effective, they must be periodically evaluated to determine if they are meeting their goals and to indicate areas where improvements need to be made. Numerous studies have been conducted to evaluate school public relations programs. Some of these studies have been concerned with the public relations programs of a single school district while others have involved a number of school districts within a given state or across the nation. The public relations programs of both elementary and secondary schools have been evaluated and the attitudes of school authorities toward public relations activities have been assessed. The purpose of this paper is to examine a number of these studies as to the standards employed in the evaluations, the findings of the investigations, and the recommendations put forth for improving school public relations programs.

Questions

1. Who has the responsibility for school public relations?

2. How are public relations programs organized?

3. How does the size of a school system affect public relations?

4. What is the scope of public relations programs?

5. What instruments are available for use in evaluating public relations programs?

Review of Studies

A case study of the public relations program of the South Huntington Schools in New York indicated that the most serious problems faced by the school district were those of providing school buildings for the increasing pupil population and securing the financial support of the tax payers (8). A review of the literature and correspondence with authorities in the field of public relations was undertaken to establish standards against which to measure the public relations programs of Huntington. The process produced a list of six general standards for public relations programs: A school public relations program should be (1) honest in intent and execution, (2) an intrinsic part of the total school program, (3) continuous, (4) comprehensive, (5) sensitive to its public, and (6) simple in the ideas it attempts to convey.

Based on interviews with school authorities, teachers,non-teaching personnel, and representatives of various segments of the community, several recommendations were made for the improvement of the public relations program. The study recommended that the board of education adopt a statement of basic policy for school public relations and establish a position of coordinator of school-community relations. The superintendent was encouraged to lead his staff in improving the public relations program, and principals were encouraged to assume responsibility at the building level. Both teachers and non-teaching personnel employed by the school were admonished to bear in mind that their conduct had a strong influence on the attitudes of both students and lay citizens toward the schools (8).

A survey of school administrators in the Milton Area School System in Pennsylvania was undertaken to determine the degree to which educational progress in school districts was attributed to the use of public relations programs and the understanding of the power structure of the community (7). This study concluded that while it was possible for an educational program to advance with or without the use of a public relations program, an educational program can advance much more rapidly with the assistance of a planned public relations program.

A national study attempting to identify the most successful techniques in public relations programs utilized data gathered from library research, a questionnaire, and a survey (2). Twelve nationally recognized specialists in public relations responded to the questionnaire and the presidents of National School Public Relations Association chapters in twenty-one states responded to the survey. The study concluded that the teacher is the most important public relations contact that the schools have and that two-way communication between the public and the schools is the most effective method of communication. Commercial techniques of public relations and advertising, the study indicated, could be adapted successfully to school public relations programs. Some techniques of public relations which were identified as being unsuccessful were: (1) The appointment of advisory committees without defining their roles, (2) neglecting to inform the public before making major changes in the school program, (3) unplanned or poorly planned communication attempts between the schools and the groups needed for support, and (4) inservice education meetings which provided for only one-way communication. The study recommended that all school districts evaluate their public image and that boards of education be encouraged to adopt public relations policies. It was also recommended that inservice programs be developed to help all employees of the school system understand their roles in the public relations program.

A survey of a number of school districts in California identified certain trends taking place in public relations programs (4). Most public relations programs are organized to meet specific needs (such as gaining public support for the passage of a school bond issue) rather than providing for a continuous program based on acceptable principles and written policies. More public relations activities are being administered through the office of the superintendent and public relations functions are being delegated to specialists. The slow development of public relations programs in many school districts has been blamed on lack of funds, lack of recognized need, lack of personnel, and fear of lack of understanding. The study recommended that consultants be used for community analysis and for developing a program and staff to meet the public relation needs of the district.

An interview schedule developed from the literature on public relations was employed in a number of Texas school systems in an effort to determine the affect of school district size on public relations activities (6). The study found differences between large and small school systems in the purposes of their public relations programs, the way they were organized, and in the personnel and media used to carry out the programs. Based on the findings, the study recommended that all school systems should establish definite purposes for their public relations programs and should develop an organizational structure to carry it out. All personnel of the school system as well as agents and agencies outside the schools should be included in the public relations program. Efforts should be made to identify and remove barriers which impede the flow of information about the schools and efforts should also be made to determine the attitudes and feelings of the people of the community.

A questionnaire developed by Butler was administered to superintendents, principals, teachers and laymen in a number of school districts in Mississippi in an effort to evaluate local public relations programs (1). In general, the school systems were failing to carry out effective programs of public relations. Many activities considered to have a high value for public relations were not being used in the school systems. Among the media being used for public relations were radio, television, and newspapers. These media, however, lacked proper balance, amount, and interest in programs to meet the total needs of the public. The public relations programs of larger schools were consistently rated higher than those of smaller schools. Universities and consultative services were not being utilized to any great extent.

The public relations programs of a number of city elementary schools in northeastern Ohio were assessed through a questionnaire administered to principals of these schools (3). An analysis of the data indicated that in most schools, the principal was the directing agent for public relations and worked closely with community organizations. Two-thirds of the principals were satisfied with their authority over matters concerning public relations. Forty percent, however, did not feel that the superintendent was aware of the scope of their duties.

Communication with staff members was extremely limited as indicated by the fact that only one-third of the principals alerted staff members to their responsibilities in the program and only one-fourth discussed public relations at staff meetings. All principals indicated their budgets were inadequate. In fact, less than one-third of the schools acknowledged that they had any funds budgeted for public relations activities. Principals of larger schools made wider use of the school plant, were more secure in having defined roles within the community public relations program, served in schools that were better equipped, and made better use of specific public relations techniques than did principals of smaller schools.

A study of the public relations activities of twelve medium-size school districts in Michigan was undertaken to determine whether or not the present public relations programs had been influential in gaining increased support among voters (12). Six of the schools were in districts which had shown strong support for the schools during the previous four years while the other six were in districts of low support where bond issues and tax measures had been defeated. The results of the study indicated that it is difficult to rely upon public relations activities to change voter attitudes and gain community support and understanding in a short period of time. The greatest problem seemed to be creating the desire among uninformed voters to become informed on school matters. The study also indicated that greater attention needs to be paid to establishing contacts between administrators and the public.

Another Michigan study explored the importance of community organization for school support (10). The findings indicated that the level of support which a community affords its schools is related to the social organization patterns of the community. Support is much more likely among citizens who are members of formal groups such as the PTA, social clubs, and church organizations. Non-group members who are out of touch with communication media were found to be the most disinterested and exhibit the lowest level of support for the schools.

An inventory of the attitudes of New Jersey school board presidents gives some indication of how school board members feel about school public relations policies and practices (5). Three hundred eighty-six board presidents responded to a list of 76 items compiled from a review of educational literature to indicate their attitudes toward school public relations. The study found that while the board presidents had favorable attitudes toward school public relations policies and practices in general, they agreed significantly more with policies and practices involving personal interaction than to those which involved distributing information on polling public opinion. The board presidents had favorable attitudes toward publishing the dates and times of school board meetings, informal personal contacts with community members, and polling staff opinion. They were undecided about the use of citizens committees, advisory committees, teacher recruitment brochures, public opinion polls, and public meetings on school referendums.

There are a number of instruments which can be employed to evaluate the effectiveness of public relations programs. For example, James Young at Columbia University has developed an instrument which classifies public relations activities into seven major areas. In all, there are 66 items in the inventory which are designed to indicate areas where adequate practices are being performed and where improvement needs to take place. A manual which contains suggested procedures for appraisal and information designed to assist with interpreting the data are included in Young's dissertation (13). Another promising instrument is the Public Relations Program Evaluation Index developed by Kenneth Smith at the University of California. The effectiveness of this instrument was tested on two major samples drawn from the membership of the Public Relations Society of America, Inc. (9) Some practices which are appropriate for the school-community relations programs of public schools are included in the Guide to Public Relations for Junior Colleges (11). This document contains a statement of public relations policy and a checklist for evaluating a public relations program.

Conclusions and Implications

Among the more important conclusions of these studies of school public relations were the following:

1. The responsibility for public relations programs is primarily vested in the school administration. The superintendent has the major responsibility at the school district level while principals are responsible at the building level.

2. Most public relations programs are organized to meet specific needs rather than providing for a continuous program.

3. Too little time and money are allocated for public relations activities.

4. The social organizational pattern of a community affects the level of support for the schools.

5. Larger schools and those located in urban areas and large cities had better public relations programs, more and better equipment and facilities which could be used in public relations programs, and school principals who were better prepared to conduct public relations programs, than did smaller schools and those located in rural areas and smaller cities.

6. Most communication in public relations programs was inadequate. There was not enough two-way communication between the schools and the community and much of the communication that existed did not deal with the most relevant topics. There was a definite tendency for communication from the schools to be selective in that only one side of an issue was presented to the public.

7. Superintendents and school board members expressed favorable attitudes toward school public relations but placed more emphasis on personal interaction (informal communication) than on distributing information and polling opinion.

8. Sufficient use was not made of the professional and non-professional employees of the school systems in public relations programs.

The recommendations of the studies reviewed imply that:

1. School boards should adopt statements of basic policy for public relations and programs should be developed to carry out the adopted policies.

2. Public relations programs should be organized to include: (1) a top-level administrative officer who would have major responsibility for directing the public relations program of the school system, (2) the assignment of public relations responsibility at the building level to the school principals, (3) the maintenance of a public relations committee to evaluate the program and plan for its improvement, and (4) the involvement of all professional and non-professional employees of the school system and the development of inservice training programs to help the staff learn what their public relations responsibilities are.

3. Public relations programs should have adequate financial support with provisions made in the school budget for public relations activities.

4. Efforts should be made to assess the attitudes and feelings of the people in the school community and to determine what their informational needs are.

5. Local school systems should utilize consultants for community analysis, public relations program development, and technical assistance.

6. Public relations programs should attempt to keep the public informed on all matters pertaining to the educational program.

7. Public relations should make use of all available media and

use a balanced approach in communicating with the public.

8. Universities should provide courses of study for school public relations specialists and should give increased emphasis to public relations concepts in school administration offerings.

--James D. Wilson

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general public.

45. The community relations director conducts a training program for other members of the public relations team.

46. Regular evaluation reports are submitted by all members of the public relations committee.

47. An effort is made to determine what results can be attributed directly to the public relations program.

48. School initiated polls test the effectiveness of programs directed to specific publics.

49. News clippings are thoughtfully analyzed for content.

50. Influential people in the community are asked to evaluate the effectiveness of the program with special groups.

Conclusions and Implications

Among the more important conclusions of these studies of school public relations were the following:

1. The responsibility for public relations programs is primarily vested in the school administration. The superintendent has the major responsibility at the school district level while principals are responsible at the building level.

2. Most public relations programs are organized to meet specific needs rather than providing for a continuous program.

3. Too little time and money are allocated for public relations activities.

4. The social organizational pattern of a community affects the level of support for the schools.

5. Larger schools and those located in urban areas and large cities had better public relations programs, more and better equipment and facilities which could be used in public relations programs, and school principals who were better prepared to conduct public relations programs, than did smaller schools and those located in rural areas and smaller cities.

6. Most communication in public relations programs was inadequate. There was not enough two-way communication between the schools and the community and much of the communication that existed did not deal with

APPROACHES TO SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS

The most common measure for effectiveness of school-community relations is the successful outcome of elections involving financial support of the schools. These elections may involve passage of school bond issues, increasing tax levies for school support, or approving school budgets. School-community relations should be and in many cases are concerned with other situations, but the success of elections concerning financial support of the schools seems to be the ultimate goal of most public relations efforts and is usually the most important concern of school boards.

Questions

1. What approaches can be taken to school-community relations?
2. What approach does research recommend?

Review of Study

In one of the most comprehensive studies of the structure and process of school-community relations, Richard F. Carter and his associates examined the possible relationships of 860 variables with four criteria of school-community relations (3). These four criteria were school support, participation, understanding, and lack of conflict. School support was referred to as the degree to which voters in school districts reviewed financial issues favorably. A measure of support was taken as the percentage of voters who voted "yes" on an issue. Participation was defined as the degree to which voters exercised their right to vote in school elections and was measured as the percentage of eligible voters who turned out to vote in school elections of all kinds. Understanding was defined as the degree to which informed observers in a school district perceived factors affecting the school-community relationship the same way and was measured by the agreement among observers on a number of factors affecting the situation. Observers used in the study included the superintendent, board members, teacher representatives, parent representatives, mass media representatives, and interested citizens. Lack of conflict was referred to as the degree to which controversy and conflict were lacking in a school district and was measured as the degree to which factors which might cause controversy and conflict were perceived by observers as being inoperative in a school district.

Using a technique capable of establishing the relationships of several hundred variables to the structure of school-community relations, the forty most important variables were identified and examined to show the basis for patterns of school support. The study found that understanding, participation, and lack of conflict each had a definite relationship to support, but were not related to one another. From these findings, three patterns of support and one pattern of non-support were inferred:

> Support can be achieved through lack of conflict by attempting to meet the demand for educational services in ways which minimize the development of conflict.
>
> Support can be achieved through lower participation based on the use of effective control mechanisms which avoid arousing the interest of opposition groups and the stability of district characteristics such as pupil population and the age distribution of the community.
>
> Support can be achieved through understanding based on open two-way communication channels between the schools and the public, effective use of communication techniques and media, and content of communication which is relevant to the concerns of the public.
>
> Non-support usually results from the presence of conditions which are associated with conflict and lack of understanding.

Conclusions and Implications

Achieving support through lack of conflict involves a great deal of luck. There is little that school authorities can do to keep conflict from arising. They can only attempt to control it when it does arise. In the final analysis, lack of conflict is much more dependent upon the characteristics of the school district than it is upon actions taken by school leaders. Attempting to gain support through lack of participation runs counter to a basic tenant of our democratic way of life. That is that the individual citizen should take an active part and express his opinions in affairs of government. It would be undemocratic for school officials to attempt to manipulate conditions for the express purpose of bringing about lower participation. However, there are certain factors related to bringing about better understanding of the schools which are also related to lower participation. Setting up procedures for transmitting information to teachers and parents is related both to understanding and to lower participation. In this case, those groups which are already most supportive of the school system are given the information while the rest of the public, where opposition is most likely to arise, does not have its attention focused on the schools at all.

Attempting to bring about support of the schools through better understanding would involve not only communicating with teachers and parents but also with the rest of the public. While this might tend to increase the kind of participation which is associated with less support, it would also help to develop conditions which are associated with better control of conflict. Understanding will not always lead to support, "but it should invariably lead to lack of conflict." Therefore, it is recommended that efforts to achieve support concentrate on developing better understanding through improved and expanded communication between the schools and the community, including the developing of more formalized means of two-way communication with the public (3).

In his study on informal communication, Carter recommends that instead of having a general information program aimed at the public as a whole, specific informational programs should be instituted which are aimed at specific groups of people (2). Carter also indicated that if these groups are to be successfully influenced to support the schools, the information they receive should be relevant to their needs and interests. The content of many informal communications about the schools is not relevant to these needs and interests. Therefore, Carter recommends that schools take steps to increase both the number and the quality of formal discussions of school matters.

In another study he outlines a set of procedures which would provide for a more formalized discussion of school affairs (3). An example of using this set of procedures for introducing an innovation into the school system would include: (1) announcing the possibility of a change and asking for opinions from the public about the proposed change, (2) reporting the opinions expressed about the change and the decision reached, along with information concerning the time for reviewing the results of the change, (3) announcing the time and place of the discussion that will evaluate the results of the change and encouraging citizens to attend and express their opinions, and (4) reporting on the evaluation discussion and the decision reached as well as the time and place for any subsequent reviews of the change.

In this same study, Carter makes the following recommendations to school authorities in dealing with the public:

1. "Issue regular reports to citizens." These reports may not change the attitudes of any citizens toward the schools but if regular reports are not received by those who have favorable attitudes toward the schools, their attitudes may become less favorable. This process serves to reassure citizens about their schools.

2. "Arrange contacts with neglected groups." A special program might be designed for communicating to pre-school parents who are sometimes concerned about the quality of the school program. Communication efforts aimed at post-school parents might help increase their interest in school matters and relieve to some extent the conservative nature of their vote. Adult organizations and the mass media could be used to communicate with non-parents.

3. "Improve contacts with specific groups." Many times communication techniques are used too broadly or are aimed at inappropriate audiences. Since different groups of citizens have different interests and concerns, communication programs should be planned for these groups in relation to their interests.

4. "Establish contact with latent supporters." Many citizens have no contact with the schools. If contact is to be made, it must be done so by the schools since these citizens do not believe they are capable of establishing such contact.

5. "Make greater use of the mass media." For many citizens the mass media is the primary source for information about schools. To overcome various problems that may arise through the use of the mass media, schools could attempt to accommodate the particular needs of these media. Schools might also secure better cooperation by rewarding the media for their help through public recognition.

6. "Teach about schools in school." Most citizens are poorly prepared to take an interest in school affairs. By learning something about how the school system functions students will be better prepared to take an active part in school affairs when they become adults.

--James D. Wilson

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PUBLIC OPINION OF THE SCHOOLS

Boards of education are concerned about what the public thinks of the local school system and of education in general. School-community relations programs are often evaluated on the basis of public opinion. The probability of success in elections involving school finances may depend greatly on current public opinion of the schools. Studies which have been concerned with some aspects of public opinion of education and schools have indicated that opinions and attitudes are related to such factors as individual characteristics, value orientations, community characteristics, and the opinions of community leaders.

Questions

Research on public opinion of the schools has attempted to answer the following questions:

1. What aspects of the school system are of greatest concern to the public?

2. What individual characteristics affect the educational attitudes of the public?

3. What community factors are related to educational attitudes?

Review of Studies

A study which examined the educational attitudes of forty thousand persons in thirty-six states found that the public's main concern was for the quality of the professional educator, especially the teacher (11). The next most important concerns were for the individual student and his success in school, a broad academic program, a variety of instructional activities, and physical facilities. While some differences in responses based on social and economic conditions were noted, there were many more similarities than differences.

Shelley (12) found differences in attitudes toward education based on the enrollment of the school district, payment or non-payment of property taxes, age, sex, length of residence in the school district, whether or not there were children in the home and children in school, educational level, and the total family income. Profiles of a typical school supporter and a typical non-supporter were developed. The typical supporter was a woman, had no children, paid no property tax, lived in a large school district, and was a college graduate. The typical non-supporter was a man, lived in a small school district for over twenty years, was between forty-five and sixty years old, had an income of less than $5,000 per year, and an education of eighth grade or less.

A California study (10) examined the relationship between social rank and communication about schools, participation in school matters, and approval of school programs. The findings revealed that persons of higher social rank possessed more and better knowledge of school affairs, expressed more opinions about schools, and were more likely to approve increasing the financial support of the schools. Approval of the school program was more likely to come from persons of the lower social levels. Social rank was not related to how often citizens thought about school matters and communication from citizens to school officials was low among all social levels.

A study of attitudes toward innovations in the school curriculum among Negro and white citizens in Portland, Oregon found that citizens of both races tended to value tradition and the concept of "hard work" in relation to the school programs (1). Most of the opposition to innovations among white citizens came from those who were under twenty-five or over fifty-five years old and had no school-age children. The lack of social mobility and chances for economic advancement were related to negative attitudes among Negroes. White citizens were more likely to communicate with school officials.

A recent West Virginia study compared the attitudes of the poor (yearly income of $3,000 or less for a family of four) and non-poor and found no differences in educational values (2). However, the poor consistently evaluated the local school system's operation and resources more favorably than the non-poor. This tendency for the poor to overrate the local school conditions resulted in their voting down efforts to secure greater local financial support.

Attitudes toward education are influenced by the degree of urbanization in the community. Otis (10) found that persons living in areas of lower urbanization possessed more knowledge of school affairs, exhibited greater approval of school programs, and were more likely to approve increased financial support for schools than persons living in the areas of high urbanization. A Missouri study (9) found that rural people expected and approved a more rigidly disciplined school than did urban people. Carter pointed out that educational attitudes in many urban areas have been influenced by rural migration to the cities (2).

In a study of rural neighborhoods, Maughan (7) found that neighborhoods of people having a variety of ethnic and religious characteristics were more favorable to school programs and practices than were neighborhoods where the characteristics of the people were more alike. However, an Indiana study (6) found high similarity between the educational attitudes of adults in a declining community and a non-declining community. (The findings of this study are greatly limited since only one community of each type was involved.)

A study of community leaders in Maryland (8) found much sympathetic interest in public schools and considerable agreement on educational issues. Generally, these leaders placed heavy emphasis on intellectual training as opposed to the social, ethical, or practical aims of education. There was also support for raising the status of teachers (including the paying of higher salaries), smaller class sizes, and more individual attention and better counseling for students. Updating vocational training, improving school communications, and providing more state aid for education were also supported by the community leaders.

Conclusions and Implications

In conclusion, it may be said that while there is considerable public opinion supporting education and local schools, such support is more likely to be found among persons and communities having certain characteristics (5). Parents of school-age children are usually more favorable (1, 3, 4), as are persons who are better educated, have higher incomes, and are of the upper social classes (1, 2, 10, 12). The degree of urbanization and the structure of local communities have an influence on opinions about the schools. The less urban and more varied communities are usually more supportive of education (2, 7, 10).

School boards can perform their function of representing the public in school matters much more effectively if they have information about the concerns and opinions of the public. Therefore, local school authorities should make efforts to determine what the public thinks of the operation of the local schools. Surveys of local citizens and interaction with community leaders may provide valuable insight into the impact the schools are making on the community.

Evaluations of the schools should be considered in relation to the structure of the community and the characteristics of persons expressing opinions about the schools. Knowing where support and opposition are most likely to be found can aid school authorities in planning public relations programs designed to increase support and reduce opposition. Since support is already strong among parents of school children and persons whose education, income, and social positions are above average, most public relations activities should aim at gaining support among the lower socio-economic groups and persons who have little contact with the schools.

--James D. Wilson

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TRENDS IN TEACHER STRIKE ACTIVITY

Within the traditionally complacent ranks of the teaching profession a growing dissatisfaction is evident. On the contemporary educational scene, teacher militancy is erupting in strikes, professional sanctions and other overt forms which would have been unbelievable a few years earlier.

Questions

1. What has been the increase in frequency of teacher strikes in recent years?

2. Are there geographical patterns in teacher strikes?

3. Do teacher strikes tend to recur within the same school districts?

Review of Studies

The Bureau of Labor Statistics reports thirty-three work stoppages in 1966 alone. By contrast there were only thirty-five work stoppages in the entire decade prior to that year (2). The Research Division of the National Education Association lists twenty strikes during the same year of 1966. This represents a marked increase over the five preceeding years for which an average of five strikes per year--a total of twenty-three--is reported by NEA (7). Both sources indicate through these data that teacher strike frequency during 1966 rises sharply when contrasted with statistics for previous years. But 1966 was only a portent of the deluge to come. NEA's Research Division records 105 strikes by school teachers during the year 1967, an annual increase of three to five hundred percent depending on base of reference (7). In school year 1968-1969 officials of both the American Federation of Teachers and the National Education Association predict three to four hundred work stoppages by teachers in all parts of the country. "We teachers are tired of all this being nice guys," announces a Des Moines high school teacher. "Now we're applying some muscle." (5) And he echoes the mood of a growing faction of vociferous dissidents--teachers Myron Lieberman has aptly denominated the militant mice (4).

Scope of strike activity. Strikes by teachers during the 1967-68 school year, as reported by NEA, occurred in twenty-one of the fifty states and in the District of Columbia. Almost 163,000 teachers and approximately 1,400,000 man-days of instruction were involved. In the eight-year period following 1960 there were statewide strikes and work stoppages in Utah, Kentucky, Florida, Oklahoma, and Pennsylvania. Length of strikes and work stoppages varied from one day to more than three weeks (7).

Although strike activity is higher than ever and, by all indications, still increasing, statistics are often misleading. In the 1967-68 school year, according to NEA, fewer than 8 percent of all teachers were involved in strikes. Man-days of instruction involved by teacher strikes totaled less than one-half of one percent of estimated man-days scheduled for the entire nation. Moreover, in many systems, days lost because of strikes were rescheduled to meet state minimum attendance requirements (7).

Geographical patterns in teacher strikes. A particularly outstanding aspect of teacher strike activity little noted in the literature is its tendency to adhere, for the most part, to definite geographical patterns. Of the total man-days involved in strikes or work stoppages, says NEA, 90 percent were reported in three states: Florida, Michigan, and New York (7). Friedman, in a study of teacher strikes from 1880 to 1964, noted a clustering of strikes in particular states by periods of time. Of 130 teacher strikes listed, forty-six occurred in Pennsylvania[1] (1). This is more than four times the number of strikes reported in Illinois and New Jersey, next in frequency, for the period of the study. These three states accounted for more than half of the teacher strikes listed. Furthermore, strikes tended to cluster in certain localities within these states. The Pennsylvania strikes were concentrated particularly in the Wilkes-Barre and Scranton areas. In Illinois, strike sites clustered in the southwestern part of the state and in and about East St. Louis. Most of the New Jersey strikes occurred in the northeast, close to New York City (1).

Goergen and Keough in a study of forty teacher strikes from 1955 through 1965 recognized two major clusters of strike sites: One appeared in and about the New York metropolitan area, mostly in northern New Jersey, and the other was in the vicinity of East St. Louis, Illinois. The strikes in these two clusters accounted for nearly half of the strikes investigated (3).

At the present time Michigan appears to have gained the ascendancy among states as a breeding ground for teacher strikes. Of the thirty-three strikes reported for 1966 by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, over one-third of them occurred in this state (2). NEA statistics for the 1967-68 school year list forty-seven out of a total of 114 strikes as occurring in Michigan, four times as many as in states ranking next in strike frequency[2] (7). The Michigan strikes, moreover, appear to cluster in and about Wayne County, the greater Detroit area.[3]

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[1] The dissertation copy utilized by the project was a personal one loaned by Dr. Friedman and possibly not the final draft of his study.

Multiple strikes. Related perhaps to the phenomenon of geographical clustering of strike sites is that of multiple strikes, another aspect of the problem which has received comparatively little attention in the literature. Considering that there were over twenty thousand school districts in the United States in the fall of 1967 and only 148 teacher strikes from 1960 through that year, as reported by NEA, the chance occurence of two strikes occurring in the same school district is extremely small[4] (6, 7). Yet the lightning frequently strikes twice or many times in the same place. Goergen and Keough, in their study of forty strikes, found that ten of the districts studied had experienced other teacher strikes at some time. Moreover, in locations where multiple strikes had occurred, the same issues and outcomes were usually observed for all strikes in a particular district (3).

Conclusions and Implications

In summary, teacher strikes have increased in recent years with a sharp rise in strike frequency occurring in 1966. Man-days of instruction lost, however, are almost negligible in a national perspective partly because lost time due to strikes in many systems is rescheduled. Teacher strike activity tends to follow definite geographical patterns. Most strikes occur in relatively restricted areas, and there is a marked tendency for strikes to recur within a single school district.

--Sam P. Sentelle

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[2] Florida and Illinois ranked next in order of frequency with twelve strikes reported for each state.

[3] Strike sites listed in the Walker report (1960-61 through 1967-68 school years) were categorized according to county as given in the USOE Directory.

[4] Random probability of two or more of these strikes having occurred in a particular school system exceeds 10^{-3}.

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TEACHER TURNOVER: WHY TEACHERS LEAVE THEIR JOBS

Teachers tend to have shorter professional lives and higher rates of turnover than other groups. The high number of women in the teaching force is one reason for this, but the status of the profession and the lack of advancement opportunities also contribute to the situation. A number of studies have examined the characteristics of teachers and their schools as these characteristics were related to the problems of teacher turnover.

Questions

A review of these studies will consider some of the following questions:

1. Are there factors such as sex, age, and marital and family status of teachers which indicate whether teachers will continue in teaching?

2. Among teachers who leave teaching, what proportion eventually return, and after what period of time?

3. Are working conditions such as salaries, teacher-pupil ratios, and achievement and behavior of students related to teacher turnover?

4. Is it possible on the basis of the research findings to develop hiring practices which will result in more teachers continuing in teaching?

Review of Studies

Lindenfeld (7) attempted to determine why some school districts have higher teacher turnover rates than other districts. Using a sample of 2,179 public school districts in the United States, a return rate of 87 percent, he found that among teachers employed by the reporting school districts, 45 percent had not taught before, 23 percent were former teachers who were returning, and 32 percent were transferring. Of all teachers who left their positions, 9 percent took leaves of absence, 8 percent retired, 2 percent died, 13 percent were dismissed, and 3 percent moved to a non-teaching job in the same district. The rest were classified as "other separations" and included those transferring to other schools. An estimated 8.1 percent of all teachers left the profession during the year. For men, the loss was 6.3 percent, while 8.8 percent for women. A higher percentage of men (19.3) than women (10.0) were dismissed from their jobs. Women were more likely to take leaves of absence or retire, and men were more likely to move to a non-teaching job. Among those hired during the year, men were more likely to be entering for the first time or transferring, and women were more likely to be returning after an absence. There was a slight tendency for small districts to have higher teacher loss rates; this tendency was more marked for beginning teachers and for men than it was for all teachers or women teachers alone. The study found little relationship between the proportion of teachers who left their jobs and the average salary paid or the pupil-teacher ratio.

Georgia. Booth (1) identified 392 teachers who began teaching careers in Georgia in 1964 and who left teaching at the end of one year. A Teaching Appraisal Schedule (TAS) was prepared to measure attitudes of those teachers in eleven areas related to job satisfaction. The TAS was pre-tested on a pilot group of 81 teachers and former teachers. Results showed that teachers with substandard certificates were more likely than teachers with standard certificates to leave the profession. Teachers who left the profession were asked about their interest in teaching at some future time. Those who indicated that they did not plan to teach again were less favorable toward teaching as a career and had more negative feelings about students than did either those who planned to teach or those who were undecided about teaching again.

California. Despain (2) used data from three unidentified California school districts in studying factors related to length of service of teachers. He found that certain teacher characteristics were related to remaining. Among women teachers, those who were married and between 35 and 44 years of age at the time they were employed tended to have the longest records of service. Men between the ages of 25 and 29 and who were married at the time of employment were more likely to stay. Single men and women between the ages of 20 and 24 had the highest turnover rates. In addition, it was found that for both sexes local residence and previous teaching experience were related to length of service.

Ohio. Thomas (11) studied factors associated with retention of teachers in schools in Ohio. Data were gathered by means of questionnaires mailed to administrators and teachers in school districts of Cuyahoga County. Returns were received from 45 percent of teachers identified as having resigned from positions in twenty-two districts. Two questionnaires were mailed to the administrator in charge of professional personnel in thirty-one districts. Returns were received from 87 percent of the administrators for the first form and from 81 percent for the second. It was found that the large majority of both men and women who left teaching positions had less than five years teaching experience. Among women, the three reasons cited most often for leaving a teaching position were pregnancy, transfer of husband's job location, and marriage. Men cited moving, advancement, and leaving the profession most frequently. More than one-half of the teachers who left teaching jobs reported that they held second jobs in addition to teaching. Men and women tended to report similar satisfactions from teaching but differed in their reports of dissatisfaction. Women were more likely to be dissatisfied with working conditions, while men more often cited financial dissatisfactions. Among the women, more than two-thirds left for reasons not associated with their work, and 90 percent indicated a desire to return to teaching in the future. The reasons given by men for leaving were more likely to be associated with their dissatisfactions with teaching.

Missouri. Whitener (12) applied actuarial techniques to the analysis of data on teacher turnover. He sought to determine whether certain characteristics of prospective teachers could be used to predict how long the person would continue to teach. Characteristics examined were sex, age, and marital status at time of employment, teaching assignment, and prior teaching experience. Records of 937 teachers in nine Missouri school districts were used as a source of data. Analysis revealed that the teachers who were most likely to continue teaching were those who already had taught for a number of years. The best single predictor of length of service was found to be the age of the teacher at the time of employment. Older teachers (up to age 54) more often continued teaching for ten years or more. Single women and men remained in teaching for longer periods than did married women. Previous experience in teaching was related to length of service for men but not for women. Grade level did not bear a relationship to length of service.

Turnover in urban low socio-economic areas. Six (10) analyzed the causes of teacher turnover in schools in a low socio-economic area of San Diego. Thirty-seven teachers in seventeen schools furnished the data for the study. The writer reported that teachers who transferred out of the area were more likely to have had classes with high turnover rates, more problem children, and more low achievers. Teachers who remained in the area for a period of from five to nine years were found more often to be from a minority ethnic group from working class families who lived near the school in which they taught.

New York State. A study by Greene (4) on the causes of teacher turnover in New York State gathered data by means of mailed questionnaires. Administrators of central schools supplied information on turnover rate and the size and characteristics of the secondary staff. Teachers who had resigned teaching positions in the schools were surveyed for information about their reasons for leaving and personal characteristics. Returns were received from 348 administrators (70%) and from 731 teachers (58%). Responses indicated that turnover was highest during the first three years of teaching. More than half of the respondents gave reasons for leaving which the researcher considered avoidable. Teachers and administrators differed in the frequency with which they cited dismissal and dissatisfaction as reasons for teachers' leaving.

The New York City studies. In one of the few long-range studies of teacher turnover, graduates of teacher training programs in New York City colleges in 1954 were followed up for twelve years and a series of reports on their subsequent employment histories published. There were 1,800 persons enrolled in student teaching classes during the academic year 1953-54 who comprised the basic population for the studies. The findings must be interpreted cautiously in view of the fact that the New York graduates as a group differed in two important respects from the population of all teachers. The women-to-men ratio of the New York graduates was 8:1, compared to a 2:1 ratio for all teachers, and the ratio of elementary teachers to secondary teachers was 3:1 for the New York group. Nationally the number of persons preparing to teach at the secondary level outnumbered the elementary candidates.

In the 1959 survey, reported by Rabinowitz and Crawford (9), responses were received from 70 percent of the 1,628 graduates for whom addresses were available. Fifty percent of the respondents were teaching at that time, and 6 percent had never taught. The highest percentage teaching for any one survey was 77 percent in the 1955 survey. About three-fourths of the men but less than one-half of the women from the 1954 class held teaching positions in 1959. However, a larger percentage of men (11%) than women (5%) had not taught. Among persons who were over thirty years of age when they received their degree, 89 percent were teaching five years later, and only 2 percent of that group had never taught. A large majority (83%) of women with children under five years of age were not teaching in 1959.

The husband's income was related to whether or not women continued teaching. Women whose husbands earned less than $10,000 a year were more likely to teach. Persons who prepared to teach at the secondary level had a higher rate of continued employment than elementary teachers, and teachers who had found student teaching satisfying were more likely to remain in the profession. Among those graduates who were teaching in 1959, less than half of the women (40%) said that they intended to continue teaching indefinitely. About 80 percent of the men had such intentions. Salary was related to teaching plans, particularly among men.

Findings from the 1964 survey of the New York City teacher training graduates were reported by Impellitteri (5). Forty-four percent of the respondents were teaching in 1964, including 18 percent who had left teaching temporarily and returned. Fifty-two percent were not teaching in 1964, and 4 percent had never taught. Among those who were teaching, 88 percent of the men and 72 percent of the women reported that they planned to continue teaching indefinitely. Twenty-two percent of the women and 11 percent of the men were undecided about their future. Among those persons who were not teaching in 1964, 64 percent of the women and 13 percent of the men reported that they planned to return to teaching. About one-third of each sex was undecided about future plans. One-third of the teachers who reported in 1957 that they planned to teach in the future were teaching in 1964; 9 percent of those who had said they did not plan to teach were teaching; and 14 percent of the 1957 undecided group were teaching in 1964. Former teachers from difficult schools were slightly less likely to report plans to return to teaching.

Fuchel (3) summarized the findings from the series of studies of the New York City teacher group. These findings were similar to those reported by Rabinowitz and Impellitteri.

Chicago. Kleinert (6) reported findings of the survey of a suburban Chicago school district which had displayed a high turnover rate over a period of time. He found that teachers who left teaching positions in the system were most often young unmarried women, frequently with a master's degree.

Idaho. Orlich's study of teacher turnover in Idaho (8) found that teachers leaving the state were better educated than the average teacher; destinations were similar to those of out-migrants in the general population.

State statutes and court decisions. Williams (13) studied state statutes and court decisions related to dismissal of teachers. He found that there was little agreement among the statutes on allowable reasons for dismissal and that ambiguities in interpretations existed.

Conclusions and Implications

The research on teacher turnover indicates that young teachers without previous teaching experience and women with young children have the lowest expectancy of continuing in teaching. The highest loss of teaching manpower occurs in the first few years following entrance into the field. Conversely, teachers who tend to remain on the job the longest are women whose children are likely to be of school age and men.

Men appear to be more likely than women to leave a teaching position for reasons related to working conditions. Low salaries are more often given as a reason for leaving a position by men than by women, and men are more likely to leave for reasons of professional advancement.

There appears to be a slight relationship between teacher loss and the achievement level and behavioral difficulties of their classes. The relationship shows up most strongly in the tendency for teachers who are not teaching to report that they do not intend to return to teaching. The relationship between teacher loss and pupil-teacher ratio is not clear. Administrators can examine the effects of these factors on teacher turnover by using terminal interviews with teachers who are resigning or transferring.

Teachers who are recruited locally seem to be somewhat more likely to continue in teaching. This finding holds true for schools in low socio-economic communities. It is not known what proportion of teachers who leave positions eventually return to teaching nor how long they are out of teaching before returning. Evidence from one study (5) showed that among teachers who stated an intention to return to teaching the proportion who had actually done so seven years later was small.

Some implications of these findings are as follows:

1. Hiring practices designed to recruit teachers who are more likely to continue in teaching should reduce the rate of turnover in a district. These practices will probably be most effective if based on findings related to local conditions. One way in which useful data can be gathered at the local level is through the use of terminal interviews with leaving teachers.

2. Administrators and boards of education must weigh the advantages of a stable teaching staff against the disadvantages of screening out competent and talented teachers. Teachers with a great deal to offer probably should not be eliminated from consideration on the basis of risk of loss.

3. A combination of actions may be necessary to effectively reduce teacher loss at the local level. Recruiting more men into teaching without at the same time offering them attractive salaries and advancement opportunities may have little long-term effect on rate of teacher loss.

--John T. Seyfarth

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PUBLIC EXPECTATIONS OF BOARDS OF EDUCATION

Boards of education are expected by the general public and by sub-groups within the public to perform certain roles related to the operation of the school system. In addition, the public holds certain expectations related to teachers, students, school finances and various aspects of the school program. Since representing the public interest is considered to be an important function of the board of education, board members should be aware of what the public expects of them. Only a small number of research studies have been concerned with assessing what the public expects of boards of education. However, those studies that have been conducted offer valuable insights and recommendations for school board members.

Questions

The research reviewed in this paper was pursued in an effort to find answers to the following questions:

1. How much agreement is there among various sub-groups of the public concerning what the role of the board of education should be?

2. What factors influence what is expected of the board of education?

3. What specific expectations does the public hold in regard to school board members, the school program, teachers, students, and school finance?

4. Does a relationship exist between expectations and financial support of the schools?

Review of Studies

The major portion of the research dealing with expectations of the board of education and the public schools has been conducted at the University of Wisconsin. A number of doctoral dissertations and other research reports have been developed based on data gathered in twelve Wisconsin school districts. These data were gathered through interviews with 1,794 citizens, 240 teachers, 183 elected public officials, 90 school board members, and 12 superintendents. Lipham (5) used information from these interviews to compare the expectations of lay citizens, public officials, school teachers, and school board members. Even though most citizens and many public officials had limited knowledge about how the board of education actually functioned, they held definite expectations about what the board of education and the schools should be doing. There were differences in how definite the expectations were within some of the groups. For example, parents of school-age children had more definite expectations of the board than did citizens with no children in school.

A number of factors were associated with expectations held for the school board members. Among these factors were size and nature of the community, personal variables of the board members, religious affiliation, political party affiliation, and socio-economic status. In regard to the size and nature of the community, Lipham found that the expectations held for board members in small rural school districts were considerably different from those held for board members of urban school districts. The respondents in small rural districts tended to place greater restraints upon pupils, teachers, administrators, and board members.

The expectations held by citizens varied greatly from one task area to another. For example, many who held conservative expectations concerning board of education control over the private lives of teachers held liberal views concerning the extent to which pupils should be given freedom from control. This finding was supported in a study by Meggers (6) of the expectations held by parents. Meggers found no consistent liberal or conservative expectations among the various task areas involved in the school system operation. This study also found that expectations of the schools were strongly related to religious affiliation.

Two other studies which support Lipham's findings were conducted by Streich (7) and Carver (1). Streich found a strong relationship between political party affiliation and expectations for the school board role and considerable non-systematic variations among the various task areas. Income and educational level were found by Carver to have a systematic and directional relationship with expectations of educational programs. Income relative to the local average was more closely related to expectations than the absolute level of income.

A surprising finding of Lipham's study was that board members attached less importance to their position as a board member than did citizens at large, teachers, or public officials. In fact, board members tended to avoid many of the responsibilities held for them by the other groups by delegating these responsibilities to the superintendent.

Fowlkes (2) offers three explanations as to why school board members may attach less esteem to their office than other persons do. (1) Board members recognize the complexity of their role better than outsiders do. (2) They recognize the extent to which they must rely upon professionals to advise and counsel them. (3) They recognize that the range of decisions over which they have control is much more limited than others may realize.

Larson (4) used the ninety board members involved in Lipham's study to examine the possible relationship between the values and beliefs of school board members and their satisfaction with their school board role. The results of this study showed no relationships between either values or the degree of open-mindedness and the board members' satisfaction with their school board role. Larson did note, however, that where board members held similar beliefs they experienced more satisfaction with their role. While board member satisfaction was not related to tenure, age, education, or income, board members who had comparatively high incomes were less close-minded than board members who had relatively low incomes.

In looking at specific expectations for the board of education, Lipham (5) found that respondents felt that the board of education should inform the public as to what items would be on the agenda of the next school board meeting. Respondents also agreed that board members should be elected at large rather than by sections of a district and that the board should be organized into subcommittees. All the groups involved in Lipham's study except the board members themselves felt that board members should be paid a salary, at least great enough to cover the expenses of attending meetings. There was also general agreement that school board members should not serve as spokesman for particular groups of persons. Among board members themselves, only two percent favored being a spokesman for a particular group while 90 percent opposed such a role. A majority of all groups favored the use of citizen's committees to advise the board of education, but this support was strongest among citizens at large and weakest among board members. When asked for particular problems on which they thought an advisory committee could be helpful, respondents listed school building programs, curriculum revision, pupil transportation and discipline, and public relations. Among those opposing the use of advisory committees, the most frequently given reasons for doing so were that solving educational problems was the board's responsibility and that involving too many people in school board decisions would result in confusion and delay.

In regard to specific aspects of the school program, there was a tendency for all groups to favor college preparatory courses in preference to vocational courses. Support was also evidenced for tax supported extracurricular activities and summer school programs. There was strong support for academic freedom and for budgeting money for experiments with new teaching methods and materials. In evaluating the school program respondents rated guidance and counseling services lower than any other aspect of school program.

Most respondents felt that teachers should not be required to live within the school district, that smoking and drinking in public when not involved in school activities was all right, and that teachers should not be discouraged from participation in political organizations. There was also support for the granting of sabbatical leaves and offering twelve-month employment for teachers.

All groups except board members tended to reject the practice of excusing students from school for family vacations. Opinions were about evenly divided on whether or not the board should allow married pupils to participate in extracurricular activities. In spite of court decisions to the contrary, there was almost unanimous agreement that schools should be allowed to decide the proper dress and grooming of pupils.

In regard to the financial decisions made by the board of education, Lipham found that, while the majority of all respondents considered the amount of money being spent on schools "about right," 32 percent of the citizens stated that they did not have enough information to make a judgment. All groups except board members favored seeking more federal aid. (Only 19 percent of board members favored doing so.) Most citizens and public officials wanted school supplies to be bought locally "even if the cost is higher." However, there was also support for asking suppliers to submit bids.

In a companion study to Lipham's, Thorson (8) examined expectations for expenditures in relation to four measures of financial support and ten budget items. (The four measures of financial support and the ten budget items were not listed in the study.) This study found no relationship between expectations for the financial aspects of the school board role and the level of financial support for the public schools. The study also found no relationship between the level of expectations for selected expenditures and the amount of funds allocated for those expenditures. Surprisingly, the citizens who were most satisfied with the school program lived in school districts with the lowest per pupil operating levy and those who were least satisfied lived in districts having the highest per pupil levy. Based on the data from this study, there does not seem to be such a thing as "all out" support for the schools but rather citizens seem to discriminate between what aspects of the school program they will support. Even then, a person may hold preferences for particular school programs but may not be willing to pay for them. Thorson concluded that the fact that many board members had little understanding of what other people expected of them was not always such a handicap since many financial decisions were not effectively within the control of the local school board, and thus were not really controlled by what the local citizens expected of the board.

LaPlant (3) used the data from Lipham's Wisconsin survey along with information gathered from the superintendents of twelve school districts to study the relationship between innovation and expectations of the school board role. The greatest consensus was on matters of building procedures, school sites, and building construction. There was less agreement about the role of school board members among board members themselves than among teachers, citizens, and elected public officials. In explaining his findings, LaPlant stated that in school districts where there is considerable disagreement between teachers and citizens concerning the role of the school board, the board may be so concerned about possible conflict that as a body it cannot focus on its role. Thus fewer innovations are adopted and those are adopted at a later time. On the other hand, when there is agreement between teachers and citizens, the board may focus on its role and in the process adopt more innovations at earlier times.

Conclusions and Implications

Studies reviewed in this report have several important implications for school board members. While there seem to be differences of opinion regarding the role of the board of education among the various groups used in these studies, the major differences are not among groups but rather in relation to task areas. There doesn't appear to be a consistent attitude on the part of citizens toward all areas of the school program. Citizens may hold conservative expectations for one area of the school operation and at the same time hold liberal expectations for another area. For this reason, boards of education cannot generalize about public expectations for the school program based on an assessment of citizens' attitudes toward only one area of the program. Therefore, if boards of education are really concerned about expectations which citizens hold for the school board and for school operation, they must make efforts to assess expectations for all areas of operation. Assessing the expectations of citizens for their schools does not mean that the board of education expects to give the citizens exactly what they say they want. There may be good reasons why the programs should differ from what the citizens expect from the schools. If this is true, then efforts should be made to explain to the public why the board of education is pursuing a course which is different from what is expected.

But this cannot be accomplished until the board has some knowledge of public expectations. The literature on school surveys and school public relations provides references to a number of instruments to assess what the public expects of their schools. However, it may be advisable in some situations to have the local staff develop an instrument to assess the expectations held for the particular areas of the school's operation that are of concern to the local board of education. Once the assessment of the public's expectations has been made, the board of education has the option of either changing its operation to meet the expectations of the public or taking steps to change what the public expects of the board.

The school board member is in a position which allows for considerable amount of conflict in how he is to carry out his duties. While on one hand he is the public's representative and has some obligation to respond according to what the public expects of the schools, at the same time he feels an obligation to provide the best possible education for the children of the school district. He may perceive that what certain groups of citizens expect of the schools is in conflict with what he believes is best for the school system. The board member may rest assured that he will feel pressures from various groups within the community attempting to sway him to their point of view. If he is to deal effectively with these pressures then he should be aware of certain factors which affect the expectations held by individuals in the school district. As research has pointed out, these expectations may differ according to the size and kind of community in which the school district is located. Expectations may also differ because of religious beliefs, political affiliations, and differences in social and economic status.

Research indicates that the public expects the board of education to keep it informed not only of what the board is doing but of what is happening in the schools. The public feels that board members should represent the school district as a whole rather than particular segments within the school district or particular groups of people. Citizens believe that they can help the board of education by serving as advisors when the board is dealing with certain problems related to school buildings, curriculum revisions, and matters pertaining to pupils.

The public seems to be more concerned about matters related to the school curriculum than most boards of education realize. In many cases, the public is much more in favor of innovations and experimentation in the school program than is the board of education. What the public expects of the board of education in regard to controlling the behavior of teachers varies considerably from one community to another. In rural areas and small communities there is a more conservative attitude toward the behavior of teachers than in larger, more urbanized areas. Generally speaking, however, citizens in most communities exhibit attitudes toward teacher behavior which are more liberal than that which is evidenced by the operation of most boards of education. There is also considerable variation in the attitude of the public in regard to the behavior of students. In some cases, parents may oppose what they consider to be too much control on the part of the board of education because they feel such control infringes upon their responsibilities as parents. Nevertheless, there seems to be considerable agreement that schools should have authority to make decisions regarding student appearance. A number of conflicts may arise in the near future regarding student appearance, because of the speed with which student styles and grooming behavior seem to be changing. In most communities, the regulations of the board of education concerning dress and appearance are not flexible enough to deal with these sudden changes. This is especially true of regulations that are so specific as to specify the length of a girl's skirt or the length of a boy's hair. Conflict in this area might be reduced by allowing students more authority in establishing the regulations of dress and appearance.

In regard to school finance, school boards should realize that there is considerable discrimination on the part of citizens about what aspects of the school program they will support. Even when a person prefers a particular type of program, he may not be willing to pay for it. In fact, there seems to be considerable rationalization on the part of citizens in regard to the financial support of the school system. By convincing themselves that their school program is adequate and that they are satisfied with it, citizens in low support districts feel no obligation to increase the financial support to education. For this reason, school boards must find adequate means to keep the public informed of the financial conditions of the schools.

--James D. Wilson

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MASS MEDIA IN SCHOOL-COMMUNITY RELATIONS

What does research say about the use of mass media in school-community relations? Communicating the complete school story to the general public requires the application of specialized knowledge and technical skill in the use of audio-visual mass media. This report is concerned with some major findings about radio, motion pictures, television, and newspapers, and how they affect communications between the school and community.

Less than 2 percent of the local newspaper, on the average, is devoted to school news (3). Of this small amount of coverage, school sports events receive about 52 percent. Usually those things pertaining to the schools that readers are interested in are never printed. Much less than 2 percent of the time is devoted to the public schools in commercial, radio, television, and movies. Some related literature, questions and implications associated with the problem of mass media in school-community relations are discussed in this review.

Questions

1. What communication strengths should be outstanding in those school representatives assigned to disseminate school information?

2. How does the school information best acquire its goal of objectively communicating with the public?

3. In what way can the mass media add to the effectiveness of planning and organizing the school-community relations program?

Review of Studies

A review of related research pertaining to the communicator shows that the effectiveness of the communication can depend largely on the image that the communicator portrays to the audience. Generally, audiences have responded comparatively well to specific communicators because they considered them of high prestige, expert, trustworthy, or highly reliable. On the other hand, it was found that the make-up of the audience can, indeed, result in the acceptance or rejection of a specific communication. Studies show that the communicator can add to the effectiveness of a message through the discriminatory use of words, sentences, certain stylish devices, and formulas. Research reveals that certain line lengths, type faces, headings, spatial arrangements, and grades of paper can add to the effectiveness of a message. This information has been made available through research conducted by

Anthony F. Pinnie (5).

Research dealing with communication through radio, motion picture, and television has been conducted by Winfield (6). He found that the content of radio programs was divided approximately into three major categories: (1) entertainment, (2) news, and (3) other (commercials, public service, religion, sports, and special events). About 67 percent of the time was devoted to entertainment (music), 10 percent to news, and 13 percent to the category designated "other." The total number of hours devoted to radio listening per home per week is twenty-four.

Research shows that today's motion picture audience is characterized by teems, twenties, and single men who consider movie-going as a social activity. Relatively little commercial movie time is devoted specifically to the field of education. Approximately 54 million people spend about four hours per week in the movies. According to Winfield, the general trends and short-term cycles in the type of motion picture produced in Hollywood are related to cultural, economic, and historical events in the United States and also in the world.

Commercial television has cut deeply into movie-going and radio. However, television today is firmly established as a part of the American way of life. Television is present in four out of five homes and the reception range is within nearly all of the American public. Winfield found that 86 million Americans over the age of twelve spend slightly more than five hours per day watching television. This audience in general can expect entertainment programs 74 percent of the day-time hours and 84 percent during the evening hours. The low percentage of commercial television time that is devoted to improvement of education should, indeed, be reversed. One of the most profitable methods for reversal of today's trend is to develop a sound theory for communications between educational leaders and administration of the television industry.

Ackourey (1) has pioneered this movement toward theory development. The purpose of Ackourey's research was to formulate a theory of pattern of communication between educational administration and commercial television representatives. Specifically, her theory deals with the mutual objectives of schools and television stations and communication patterns between their agents. One important conclusion from this study was that the educational administrator who plans the objectives of the school program with interested and informed citizens, and not with television representatives, provides the foundation for sound communication patterns. Ackourey also concludes that the intentions, expertness, and trustworthiness of educational administrators and television representatives can influence reactions of the receiver of a communication.

Although television and radio claim a larger audience, there is presently more research in the area of newspaper interests and coverage of educational events. According to Gordon (3) the interests of readers of school news are very similar, irrespective of age, sex, occupation and geographic location. Parents of school children are most interested in school news dealing with pupil health, curriculum, and business management and finance.

The purpose of a study by Hogan (4) was to seek insight into the press image of public schools. She concentrated on the Chicago Public Schools and sought to determine and describe the volume and kinds of news and opinion material about the city's schools. Some of the findings and conclusions from the study were: (1) Coverage on the school was related to the circulation for the newspaper investigated. (2) The subject categories receiving the greatest emphasis were: personnel, organization, and administration, and school physical plant. (3) The board of education was the chief source for information appearing in the newspaper about the schools. (4) Every newspaper in the study was instrumental in bringing educational issues to the attention of the public.

Another related study concerning the newspaper was conducted by Frum (2). His study aimed to determine the nature and extent of misunderstanding between newspaper editors and school representatives. One major conclusion from the analysis was that editors are more satisfied with the editor-superintendent relationship than are the superintendents. Also the superintendents are more critical of the editor's looking for and playing up sensational angles of school news and of the headings given to school news stories than any other phase of reporting school news. Editors are more critical of the superintendent's ability to write news releases than any other phase of reporting school news. Both parties agree that the editor should consult the superintendent about the facts contained in editorials about education.

Conclusions and Implications

There are numerous implications for schools from research dealing with mass media of communication. One specific suggestion related to printed communication is that school personnel should be encouraged to maintain a positive image (5). The chief school administrator, when selecting a staff member to communicate with the public, should base the selection on the communicating strengths of the immediate staff. The one in charge of communicating should understand the audience and slant the message toward the dimensions of the audience.

The printed materials released by schools should be directed toward combating attitudes of the community or given issues. If schools are aware of the opinion leaders in the community, then these specific messages should be directed toward the leaders and their opinions should be requested.

When the school communicator is attempting to persuade the school audience, certain techniques should be employed. The school message should be written on two levels for the reading audience. According to Pinnie (5) the school message should be short, in plain language, comprehensive sentences, and in a simplified style of writing. The newspaper is an old established way of life in America, but what are some inplications for school community relations programs with respect to radio, television, and motion pictures?

The use of school-made radio and television programs as well as school-produced motion pictures should be given consideration in planning and organizing a school-community relations program. Utilization of these media is suggested because millions of Americans in the middle educational and income groups are in this audience. Winfield (6) has suggested that school-produced programs may be designed with "target-audience appeal." It appears that the program structure can be designed to attract and hold an audience which will be responsive. This newer trend is in contrast to the old style of "something for everyone."

One main purpose of clear communications in the school and the community is to maintain clear channels of information dissemination. Clear, concise printed materials are necessary to achieve this purpose. It is suggested that there is much more value to be realized in communication through radio, television, and motion pictures when their contents are aimed toward a specific audience.

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TEACHER INTERVIEW AND SELECTION TECHNIQUES

Because of the growing teacher shortage and increasing competition among school systems for the best teacher candidates, there is a need for more information on the subjects of recruitment and selection. This paper reviews some of the research on teacher interviews and various other selection techniques.

Questions

1. What is the nature of the selection process?

2. Is there a way to improve relations between the applicant and the interviewer?

3. What procedure should be used in developing information to be presented to the candidate regarding the community and school?

4. How is the interview process perceived by the applicant?

Review of Studies

How have beginning teachers perceived the interview process? Scott (6) investigated methods used by 70 school district recruiters and found that there was a great difference in how the employer and the potential employee perceive the interview. Applicants reported that the recruiter used over 62 percent of the interview time, while the recruiter claimed he used less that 46 percent of the time. The applicant, in general, interviewed because of interest in the area or in the district, and because of a desire to "shop-around." Slightly more than 68 percent of candidates that were interviewed gave the process a favorable rating.

What ways could be found to make the interview process more objective? Davey (3) has stressed the need for outside evaluative standards for interviewers. He suggested a systematic plan which could possibly make the interview more objective. This plan that was prepared by Alec Rodger of London University directed the interview to some possible cause of occupational failure. In this specific setting the candidate was discussed by a panel within a common point of reference.

Further research by Bathke (1) has focused on the interview process. Data for this study were collected from fields of education, business, and industry in five states by recording the interviews of eleven administrators. Bathke found, in general, that the educational representative conducting the interview did not allow an adequate amount of time to understand the prospective employee or to gain a clear understanding of the candidates personal traits. The interviewer did, however, give the candidates enough information on the school and the community and many interviewers seem to spend too much time selling the good points of their own school system.

In nearly one-half of all interviews the candidates were given little impression about possibilities of employment. This particular trait was noted although the candidate and the interviewer maintained a good understanding of each other.

One of the most important activities in school administration is the interview and selection of school personnel. Therefore, it is necessary that a search for new and better methods and techniques for this important process be continuous. Hall (5) has focused on a technique utilizing the classroom setting for an interview. He developed a checklist to note the key points of the responses from the candidate. One feature of this method is a set of categories of interest designed to assess and compare the responses of the candidates interviewed.

The use of the personal interview has been, indeed, the most widely used procedure for selection of employees. However, the techniques used in these sessions were sometimes inappropriate and did not measure adequately the skills and abilities of the candidate. Clower (2) has done some research that complements those studies reviewed in this paper. The purpose of Clower's work was to analyze recorded interviews conducted by personnel directors in some school systems to determine the techniques and procedures used. Her study also looked at interviewing procedures of business and industry to discover some adaptable techniques for education. One important finding that should be given some consideration in education was that those interviewed in industry were usually interviewed by their prospective immediate supervisor in addition to personnel directors for evaluation of technical knowledge and skill. Another finding in this study that has been mentioned earlier was that applicants are leaving interviews with vague impressions regarding possible employment.

There appeared to be some unfair practices in interviews. There is research to show that interviewers actually made their final decisions early in the interviews (4). If this is true, then the applicant should not leave the interview with a vague impression regarding employment (2).

Conclusions and Implications

Since biases are formed early in the interview and in most cases affect the final decision, it is necessary that further research be conducted to clarify the interview process. One way to eliminate the vague impression that the candidate leaves with is to develop a better technique for the process.

Another implication from the studies reviewed is that the design or structure of the interview should be similar in pattern to the form used for evaluating teachers after employment (2). Some recommendations from this study were: (1) Colleges and universities should consider including a course in interview techniques for all school administrators. (2) The design or structure of the interview should be similar in pattern to the form used for evaluating teachers after employment. (3) Screening procedures should be improved to provide more time for interviewing qualified applicants. Research should be conducted in each system to determine if teachers are selected who fulfill the expectations of the district and if inservice training (at district expense) is needed to develop their individuals.

One reason why there is confusion surrounding the interview and selection process is that the unsystematic way of interviewing tends to produce too much uncertainty. In a study of interview techniques of teacher candidates, Bathke (1) suggests that personnel administration should develop information in systematic form to be presented to the candidate. To gain better understanding of the process it is recommended that personnel administration should explore ways of reviewing their own interview procedures.

A recommendation for improvement of the interview process from Scott (6) is that greater emphasis should be given to the applicant's need for understanding of the interview process and of his knowledge of the district prior to employment. Furthermore, he suggests that teacher training programs emphasize the teacher's concept of self and of other people. Finally, the use of selection methods in applicant screening be confined to the identifiable limitations of the evaluation instrument.

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JOINT ENDEAVORS OF THE COMMUNITY AND SCHOOL

Vigorous efforts should be made to gain closer cooperation between the school and community. Some areas of importance having to do with the school-community relationships, with respect to policy and special interest community groups, are reported in this paper. Questions are raised on school board policies that pertain to use of public school property, utilization of community resources, and duties of advisory committees. In addition, the paper focuses on the influence of community groups and the outcome of some special training programs. Changes in attitudes of special interest groups following a close association with school programs are presented. The following questions are posed as a basis for the investigation of school-community cooperation:

Questions

1. What are some school board policies that influence community use of public school property?

2. Should the administrative conditions pertaining to community resources for instructional purposes be formulated into written policies by the board of education and school administration?

3. Generally, is available space a factor that inhibits the use of school facilities by community groups?

4. In general, should there be written policies to govern lay participation in curriculum programs?

5. How can special interest groups such as the senior high school alumni association improve the school-community relations?

6. To what extent are positive changes in attitudes toward public schools noted in those who participate in local adult education programs?

7. Are lay advisory committees functional in improving the school curriculum?

8. To what extent should there be formal participation by groups of citizens in school board decisions, and are there regular patterns of behavior established in local school decision-making?

Review of Studies

Use of school facilities by community groups. An analysis of the board policies and administrative practices which influence community use of public school property in over 450 Missouri school districts has been conducted by Holland at the University of Missouri (1). This study was particularly concerned with school districts in Missouri, but some of the findings reported in this investigation relate to school systems in general.

The school administrator in nearly all the districts studied had board policies concerning non-school use of school property. Nearly three-fourths of the districts reported that these policies were in writing. Over half of these policies had been revised recently, a specific indication of the flexibility of school policies.

It was noted that the superintendent and board of education participated in the formulation of policy pertaining to the use of school property in approximately 90 percent of the reporting districts. Slightly less than 20 percent of these school districts reported that teachers, students, and other laymen participated in policy-making with the board and superintendent.

A large percent of the school districts indicated that property was available for non-school use twelve months per year. Although the non-school use of property has increased recently, nearly 90 percent of the districts had at one time or another refused certain groups or organizations permission to use school property for non-school activities.

Over half of the districts required application for non-school use of school property to be submitted from one to seven days prior to actual use. A majority of the districts gave the school superintendent the authority to pass on each application. Most of the schools required all groups to supervise the school property while in use. Extremely high fees were charged to commercial groups to discourage their use of the school facilities.

Utilization of large rural and suburban secondary school facilities by school and community groups was investigated by Turner (7). Responses from 29 principals and 524 teachers provided data for this study. This study, conducted in North Carolina, sought to determine the outdoor educational and recreational uses being made of large rural and suburban secondary school sites. One important finding was that community groups used the school facilities relatively little.

School use of community resources. The policies concerning use of school facilities by community groups have been explored in the above paragraphs. Attention is now devoted to use of community resources.

A study by Lowe (2) of fifteen selected school districts in Missouri concentrated on conditions which existed pertaining to the use of specific community resources for instructional purposes. The study found that few board of education and school administrative policies on the use of community resources were in written form. However, Lowe discovered board of education and administrative policies regulated the length of field trips and required parental permission and a specific number of chaperones for participating students. Furthermore, there were board policies providing district owned buses for field trips that were associated with teacher-supervised field trips.

This study disclosed that school policies also regulated the distribution of literature to pupils by outside resource persons such as clergymen, industries, and certain pressure groups. In districts where board policies existed regarding visitors, materials, and equipment the teachers did, in fact, make greater use of these outside sources.

Turner (7) found that if the school districts use lay advisory committees in local improvement programs, then they gain considerable support. But to continue this practice boards of education are advised to develop a statement of policies and procedures for lay advisory committees.

Special interest groups. Special interest groups (PTA, alumni associations, etc.) have contributed over a period of years to improvement of communications between the school and community. Specifically, alumni associations have been active since the beginning of the century. They perform a large number of activities such as the sponsoring of a dinner-dance, giving recognition to athletes at special assemblies, and donating scholarships to students and gifts to the school.

According to Wartenberg (8), alumni associations of public senior high schools in New Jersey rarely sponsor activities that help the school's total curriculum. For the most part, communications are informal between the school and the association. Only on a few occasions do school and association work together on a joint activity. This study also pointed out that presidents and principals were in general agreement that alumni associations were worthwhile and both groups were willing for the organization to undertake more activities.

Those participating in adult education programs may be viewed to a great extent as being in the spectrum of special interest groups. Indeed, they are utilizing the facilities and resources of the school and the community. In a study by Murtaugh (3), the relation between participation in adult education programs and formulation or change of attitudes of participants was investigated. The population studied was the 7,235 adults enrolled in the 1123 classes in the Flint, Michigan adult education program during the winter term of 1967. Participation in adult education seemed to have only a slight impact on improvement of attitudes toward the school.

Another special interest group, the lay advisory committee, has been investigated by Werle (9) to determine how to advance the school curriculum through improvement of the committee. Werle found in a study of 85 school districts where lay advisory groups are present there is considerable support for the use of the lay committees. However, different concerns were found between laymen and professionals with respect to curricular development. The professionals placed the greatest emphasis on a need for clear understanding of roles and responsibilities, but the laymen expressed more concern for sound curriculum consideration.

A study concerning the community participation in decisions by the school board has been conducted by Smoley (5). All issues considered by the Board of School Commissioners of Baltimore, Maryland during the period 1953-1959 were examined. Special groups of citizens were categorized for analysis. One of the categorized groups, elected government officials, was found to provide false initiation of issues under pressure of constituents. A second group, non-government groups that excluded professional teacher organizations, acted as civic organization for schools. Finally, groups categorized by Smoley as non-school, non-government served as a constant check on school board activities, objecting and complaining when they thought an injustice had been done. The non-school, non-government group forced the school board to reevaluate action taken.

Conclusions and Implications

Policy pertaining to facilities. There are several board policies that directly influence the community use of public school property as reported in literature reviewed for this report (1). Implications are that boards of education should involve teachers, students, and patrons in the formulation of policies concerning non-school use of school property. Furthermore, according to the related research, revision of policies should occur frequently to meet the changing needs of the community.

Some recommendations on board policies and administrative practices which influence community use of public school property are cited in the following section: Because an increased use was being made of school property by community groups, the literature in the review indicated school districts should have current, well-formulated, written policies concerning community use of school property. Another important factor was that those persons directly affected by these policies should have a voice in their formulation. In general, those policies concerning community use of school property should be made known to the public. Furthermore, policies should be written to emphasize positive public relations by encouraging community use of school property.

To what extent should school property be used? According to a report of the Joint Planning Committee for More Effective Schools (4), the school plant should be put to maximum use--for a full school day, on weekends, and during the summer months. Furthermore, schools should be located to achieve maximum integration. Suggestions for community involvement include parent associations, workshops, and community organizations.

Use of community resources. Few board of education and school administrative policies were found in written form concerning the use of community resources. Findings (2) revealed that the degree to which community resources are used by teachers are influenced by administration. The school officials tend to provide indirect encouragement in the use of community resources rather than encouragement through specific policies or procedures.

It has been recommended that professional and inservice training programs should emphasize the development of skills in the instructional use of community resources.

The question was raised earlier about available space and its relationship to the actual use of the school facilities. Some conclusions reached by Turner (7) were that school sites could be used more extensively insofar as available space is concerned and that the usage of school sites by community groups does not support a request for larger school sites.

Additional educational preparation was suggested to possibly make teachers and administration more knowledgeable regarding the general acceptability of the school site to instructional and recreational programs. More personnel, possibly on a part-time basis, for supervisory, maintenance, and janitorial services, especially in connection with the community use of school facilities, are needed. One community group using the school facilities is the local alumni association.

Some recommendations concerning activities performed by public senior high school alumni associations included a suggestion to principals to work more closely with alumni associations. They can do this by encouraging staff members to join and participate in alumni activities by appointing a staff member to act as an official representative to the association. An attempt should be made to have the alumni serve as resource speakers, library aides, and assist the school in areas where help is needed (8). The alumni association, therefore, appears to improve relations between the school and the community, but does a special program conducted in school facilities and by school personnel such as an adult education program have the same effect?

A study by Murtaugh (3) examined the extent that adult education programs changed attitude toward the public schools. That is, was there an improved relationship between school and community because of the adult education programs? It was noted that the public relations value of adult education programs have been overstated and that they have a limited impact in the public relations area.

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DECISION-MAKING AND BUDGETS

The decision-making process in education as well as in other organizations is closely related to finance. The purpose of this paper is to identify some procedures and techniques in educational decision-making. A secondary purpose is to investigate the decision-making process as viewed from the standpoint of state departments, the fields of economics, political science, and engineering. Finally, the implications for educational decision-making board members and professional educators will be drawn together.

Questions

1. What is the nature of educational decision-making when considered from the standpoint of the school budget?

2. How is educational input classified?

3. How is the complex decision-making process involved in state budgeting and what innovative educational proposals are likely to be approved?

4. In what ways can operation research techniques be used to aid decision-making?

5. Are stated goals contributing factors to budgetary increases on the local level?

6. What are some advantages and pitfalls associated with techniques of engineering as applied to decision-making?

Review of Studies

The school budget presents a summary of decisions for the educational community. This summary is really the financial aspects of decisions and it tells how financial resources should be distributed. What is the nature of educational decision-making?

Dimensions to educational decisions. Thomas (8) revealed three dimensions to educational decisions and the budget: (1) The economic dimension, (2) the technical dimension, and (3) the political dimension. He stated that the economic dimension involved using available resources with the purpose of achieving as many goals as possible. In other words, the money should be spent to get the most possible educational benefit. At this point the idea of efficiency comes into the picture. That is, how much was the educational output valued when compared to the cost of the input? This question has been the topic of many studies, but no clear design for efficiency measurement has yet appeared.

Another dimension of educational decision and the school budget was entitled "technical." Thomas (8) has said that the technical dimension is based on what we know about learning and teaching. Furthermore, he believed there was a very fine line between the economic and technical dimensions. He assumed, however, that teachers and department heads, as well as staff and line personnel, possessed the expertise necessary to make technical decisions within their own operations.

The third dimension concerning the nature of decisions upon which the budgetary document is based focused on politics. Aspects of resource allocation between the public and private sectors were of importance in this area. According to Thomas, the magnitude of the budget that sets some limits on the educational program was determined by political processes. Special interest groups through legislature have helped to determine how much money was appropriated to education. In many cases the budgetary allocations resulted from a compromise around demands from departments within the school system. In this setting the administrator was a politician to the extent that he gained an entrance into a structure for the purpose of influencing support for his program. Thomas (8) suggested that one device to be used by the administrator is the budgetary document which has a public relation function, as well as an information-giving purpose.

Educational inputs and outputs in budgeting. The literature thus far has pointed out measurement of educational input and output as an approach to buegeting. Knapp (2) provided a conceptual framework for identification, classification, and measurement of educational input. He found that human inputs to education have four broad categories: (1) Pupils, (2) teachers, (3) non-teaching certified personnel, and (4) non-certified personnel. He described quality characteristics as a set of human input based on learning levels and subject matter classification. Some quality characteristics were defined as experience, level of preparation, personality characteristics, value orientations, and behavior patterns. Material inputs to education have been classified by Knapp as land, buildings and supplies, and equipment.

The concept of inputs in the field of education and the measurement of the effectiveness of these inputs has been inspired recently by program budgeting, a term introduced by the Department of Defense. A study by Fox (1) of the Wisconsin state budgetary process looked at one aspect of program budgeting on the state level. Fox was concerned with the complex decision-making involved in the state biennial budgetary process. He selected some decisions that applied to innovative educational proposals for study because of the key role which revenue needs for education play in determining fiscal policy. It was found that a proposal is more likely to be approved where an agency demonstrates that (1) the proposal will permit this agency to perform a unique function if it involves an area in which other state agencies also have responsibilities, (2) the proposal has high priority in the agency relative to other requests being made at the same time, and (3) there is considerable and relatively harmonious support and demand for the service on the part of influential groups, the general citizenry, or qualified specialists. Furthermore, the characteristics of each set of standards applied at a given stage of the budget process were directly related to the general role expectations for the decision-makers at each stage.

Resource distribution and decision-making. Other research at the state level concerning decision-making has been conducted by Stimson (7). His study looked at decision-making and resource distribution in the California State Department of Public Health. This investigation focused on the department's distribution of the "Chronically Ill and Aged Services" (CI & A) federal formula grant. The allocation of resources was studied through the use of decision theory. Goals of those members of the department who influenced the program were identified, and concepts from organization theory revealed organizational behavior in the department in general and the decision process of the CI & A program in particular. The study revealed some gaps in the department's CI & A program. Moreover, the main benefit to the department from the study of the CI & A program was the demonstration that some of the department's problems could be investigated in a systematic way through the use of operations research and organization theory. Therefore, the results of this study gave the department a better knowledge of how to distribute CI & A funds.

Decision-making on the local level. Rowe (5) has taken a critical look at decision-making on the local level. His study dealt with two aspects of decision-making: (1) budget changes with organizational characteristics and (2) decisional specifications with the characteristics of decision-maker. Rowe analyzed ten agencies engaged in community maintenance in Philadelphia. He found that the formal agency goals had no effect on budgetary increases. Also, agencies with higher educational levels tended to experience greater budgetary increases. In addition to these findings he discovered that the centralization-decentralization of the agency budgetary process had no effect on budgetary increases. Agencies which were directly involved in program promotion within the community tended to experience greater increases in the budget.

Decision-making at the local level has also been investigated by Lee (4). His study was intended to illustrate the contribution that principles and techniques of engineering economy can make to local government public works decision-making. He found that engineers have a good opportunity to make important contributions to public works decision-making because of their technical backgrounds. But, the lack of understanding of the part the engineer plays on a politician is a barrier to planning. Therefore, the engineer must, indeed, improve upon past performance if public works decisions are to be more in tune with the real world.

It was demonstrated in a study by Leavenworth (3) involving the Cowlitz River Power Project of the City of Tacoma, Washington that the techniques of engineering economy, as applied to municipal electric utilities decision-making have been misused. This was particularly true in the area of investments. A related study by Thuesen (9) focused on decision techniques for capital budgeting problems. Thuesen sought to develop an understanding of regular periodic investment process where current investment decisions were influenced by current decision. This study developed a process to simulate growth. Another related study explored the feasibility of a corporate decision tool for the explicit consideration of uncertainty in capital investment analysis (6). This model is based on subjective value judgment and utility theory.

Conclusions and Implications

The literature concerning decision-making and the school budget implies that educational leaders should develop a performance budget. This budget means a distribution of funds according to anticipated pupil performance. Recently in educational planning the concept of program-budgeting has gained attention. But, educators and board members must be careful not to emphasize the same type of budget as illustrated in the Department of Defense. An alternative to this system is as follows: (1) Plan the educational program and (2) allocate financial resources based on the value of each educational program.

The major accomplishment of research by Knapp is a suggested framework for descriptive inputs in other than monetary terms (2). Human inputs have been identified as: (1) Pupils, (2) teachers, (3) non-teaching certified personnel, and (4) non-certified personnel. Quantified outputs have not been carefully described. However, according to this study, the concept of efficiency or productivity is applicable to education and education can be viewed as a system containing certain inputs to derive outputs. The study of inputs is a function of operations research.

It is now possible to use techniques of operations research to distribute funds (7). The results of studies using these new management techniques may, in fact, give more knowledge to board members concerned with distributing financial resources.

One implication derived from a study of local governmental agencies reveals that formal agency goals have no effect on increases in the budget. However, those agencies with personnel that had obtained higher educational levels did experience an increase in the budget. Moreover, on the local level it has been shown that important contributions can be made to decision-making by people with technical backgrounds such as engineering (4). On the other hand, a word of caution has been sounded regarding reliance on techniques of engineering economy in the area of financial investments (3).

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COMMUNICATING WITH THE PUBLIC

Communicating with the public about school affairs is a major responsibility of every board of education. While some school systems can get along for a while without communicating with the public, sooner or later some kind of controversy will arise which cannot be dealt with effectively without adequate communication. A continuing program of communication should be developed, not only because it is an asset to the school system, but also because the public has a right to be informed about their schools.

The agency which citizens expect to keep them informed is the one which represents them in school matters--the board of education. To discharge its obligation to the public, the school board needs to understand some of the questions involved in communicating with the public and to develop a program or strategy of communication based on the best answers research can provide to these questions.

Questions

1. How do schools communicate with the public?

2. What factors hinder effective communication with the public?

3. What are the major faults of present communication programs?

4. What are the more effective means of mass communication?

5. What communication factors relate to how people vote in school elections?

6. What information about the schools do voters want?

7. Who do people turn to for information about the schools?

8. Through what channels does school information flow?

9. Who communicates informally about school matters?

10. How effective is informal communication?

11. How do school officials feel about their part in communicating with the public?

12. What strategy can a school system employ to communicate more effectively with the public?

Review of Studies

In a study designed to obtain knowledge about the flow of information and influence in informal communication about schools (2), conversations dealing with school matters were reconstructed. Beginning with a sample of 50 households in five school districts, interviews were expanded to include each person named as having been involved in a conversation about the schools. In all, over 2,000 conversations were reconstructed and each respondent was scored on various aspects of the conversations.

Orientations toward schools. Two indications of respondents' interest in school affairs used in the study were parent viewpoint and citizen viewpoint. A person who viewed the schools from the standpoint of a citizen had a commitment of interest in public affairs in general. Persons with parent viewpoints were interested in the schools primarily because they had children in attendance. A number of persons expressed both viewpoints. Persons who had strong viewpoints of either type and especially persons with both viewpoints were most likely to engage in communication about the schools. Persons who did not tend to look at the schools from either viewpoint and who had lived in the school district only a short time were least likely to talk about schools.

Informal communication. The amount of informal communication a person engaged in was directly related to his interest in school matters. The greater his interest in school affairs, the more he talked informally about them. The schools might capitalize on this fact by attempting to identify persons who are highly interested in school affairs and supplying them information about the schools. Informal communication about schools was greater among women than among men. Persons who had been exposed to information about the schools through group meetings or the mass media tended to engage in informal communication to a greater degree than did persons who had not been so exposed (2).

Flow of influence. Concerning the flow of influence, persons with parent viewpoints and citizen viewpoints attempted to influence others more often and succeed more often than other types of persons. Persons having only one of the two viewpoints attempted influence more often but success was more highly related to persons having both viewpoints. Among both school parents and school employees, those who held moderate opinions were most likely to be successful in influencing others. "Influence occurs largely between similar types of persons. Those persons who try to influence others to more extreme views of the schools or those who try to influence persons at a different level of knowledge than themselves are generally without success (2)."

Irrelevancy of communication common. To be effective, communication about the schools must be relevant to the situation at hand.

In Carter's study (2), the situation was an election concerned with school funds, but about half the conversations studied included other school-related topics which were irrelevant to the election. For this reason Carter noted that "many election decisions are not on the issues stated for the referendum," but rather "votes are cast on seemingly irrelevant issues." He went on to suggest that "the answer may be to increase the number and quality of formal relationships. If there were a formal discussion and review of each major issue, then the dangerous contamination of irrelevancy might be avoided."

To insure relevancy, Carter suggested a process of formal review of school-related topics. The interested person should be made aware of each stage of the review process and should know who he is to contact and how he is expected to express his values. The procedure would really be a formalizing of the change process. "If the public can expect a certain set of steps to be taken prior to final review, if it can see when and how to participate, then it may come to understand and support the school's attempts to initiate beneficial changes (2)."

Sources of school information. In an attempt to discover how schools communicate to voters, the Institute for Communication Research at Stanford conducted a study which involved interviewing 900 registered voters before and after a bond election (21). The study team also interviewed 2,524 registered voters in three urban areas (one in the Southeast, one in the Midwest, and one on the Pacific Coast), 769 staff members in the Midwest school district, and 732 husbands and wives who were both registered voters in another school district. Two-thirds of the voters surveyed indicated that they would turn to school officials for information about the schools. However, only one-third of the sample could name a school official they considered well-informed about school affairs. The voters depended primarily on newspapers and conversations with friends for information about the schools but they indicated that they would prefer to talk directly with someone representing the schools. The little communication that did occur between voters and school officials at the time of a financial election was passive from the voter's standpoint. The voters listened but did not express their opinion until they did so by voting. Voters who supported the school bond issue were more likely to think of school officials as sources of information and were more likely to have talked to an informed source before the election. These same voters were also more likely to have read school bulletins or to have heard speeches by school representatives.

Areas of public concern. When asked to indicate the subjects about which they desired more information, voters showed greatest concern with curriculum matters. They also wanted more information on how the schools were operated and about teaching methods. There were two types of voters who were most interested in more information about the schools, especially about curriculum. One was the voter who viewed economic conditions as good but the schools as bad, and the other was one who participated actively in school affairs but felt little power to change the situation.

The study concluded that increased information did not influence more voters to vote in bond elections or to vote "yes." In fact, those who wanted curriculum information were least likely to vote "yes." Persons who wanted information in order to do something or to have the "right" information, as well as those who wanted no more information because they were not interested, were not likely to vote or to vote "yes." Persons who felt the subject was of interest or who wanted reassurance as well as those who already knew enough were likely to vote and vote "yes."

Discussions of school affairs among men were most likely to center on school costs, administration, building needs, curriculum, and sports. Among women, the most often discussed topics were students and special programs or events. Men talked primarily with their fellow workmen about school affairs while women were more likely to talk with someone connected with the schools. Both men and women talked about bond issues in more general terms than either the schools or the newspapers. However, as the election approached, the schools changed their emphasis to the more general aspects of the bond issue.

Existing attitudes more important than communications. The most important factor in determining whether or not the voters would pay attention to school communications seemed to be the existing attitudes of the voters. There was nothing in the study to indicate that communications had any lasting effect on attitudes, other than to reinforce those already held.

Statement of an effective program. Bloom (1) used a group of thirty professional educators to help him develop a list of statements describing an effective public information program. He then used this list to evaluate the effectiveness of present public information programs. Part of the evaluation involved seeking out the opinions of community leaders and employee groups concerning the schools and their communities. The study found that the majority of parents of school children considered themselves well informed about schools, but fewer than half of those with no children in school had this feeling. More than half of the respondents rated the public information programs of the schools as "satisfactory." The study found that the most effective medium for disseminating school news to the community was the local newspaper.

Bloom concluded that the schools were not providing adequate two-way channels of communication that allowed citizens an opportunity to participate in the development of curriculum and in the determination of a philosophy of education for the local schools. Based on this conclusion it was recommended that two-way channels of communication should be maintained so that information could flow freely between the schools and the community. It was also recommended that the schools take steps to interpret the school program to the community in such a way that the people can have an accurate and understandable picture of what is being accomplished.

A two-way communication model. Ritter (23) developed a two-way communication model at the University of Oregon and applied the model in a selected school district to determine its effectiveness in developing positive opinions toward school district programs and practices. The questionnaire used to determine public opinion was administered three times in order to assess group opinions at various stages in the process. Two experiemental procedures were used in the study. At the beginning of the experiment the questionnaire was administered to both groups. The questionnaire was administered a second time to one group just before feedback and to the other group just after feedback. The third administration of the questionnaire took place six weeks after the second administration and was used to determine the stability of any changes in opinions. The variation in the timing of the administration of the second questionnaire in relation to the providing of feedback information was designed to test the effects of feedback on opinions about the schools.

The results of the study show that there was stability of opinions for both groups between the first and second administration of the questionnaire. The group which responded to the questionnaire immediately after the feedback showed a large positive change in opinions about the schools. However, there was a slight decrease in favorableness for this group six weeks later. The responses for both groups on the final administration of the questionnaire were much more positive toward the schools than they were at the beginning of the experiment.

Change in opinion did not seem to be affected by such variables as sex, age, education, and whether or not the respondent had children attending public schools. There was more change toward favorableness on questions which were concerned with factual data as opposed to questions which involved values. This finding is consistent with a number of other studies which point up the difficulties in attempting to change values. The findings of this study indicate that a carefully designed communication model can be used effectively in bringing about favorable change of public opinions toward the schools.

School leaders and community leaders. A study was conducted in Flint, Michigan to determine whether lay citizens who occupied leadership positions in community school programs were personal influence leaders in the community served by the school (8). Individuals in the sample were classified into three groups: (1) school leaders who influenced other persons, (2) school leaders who did not influence others, and (3) non-leaders. Within each of the three groups data were gathered for each individual on such variables as attained education, occupation, job position, age, marital status, home ownership, religion, mass media exposure, neighborliness, and socio-economic status.

The study found that individuals within each of the three groups had similar characteristics while there were usually distinct differences between the groups. The differences that did occur within the groups were most often a reflection of differences in social class. School leaders who influenced others were also leaders in their neighborhoods and exerted an influence over rather long distances. In almost all cases, the strongest influence was with individuals of very similar social status. Personal influence leaders engaged in considerable and frequent interaction with other persons within their neighborhoods.

Superintendents and communication. Bernard Hughes conducted a study in Montana to determine superintendent's attitudes toward public communication tasks (10). The possibility of differences between superintendents in Montana and public school officials in other states should be kept clearly in mind when attempting to apply these findings to other areas. Hughes developed an instrument to assess superintendents' attitudes and awareness toward four important steps in the communication process. These steps were planning communications strategy and program, effective coding of useful messages, transmitting messages effectively, and obtaining, analyzing and utilizing feedback.

The results of the study indicated that Montana school superintendents were generally unaware of their communication responsibilities and held negative attitudes toward such responsibilities. Both unawareness and negative attitudes increased as the size of the school system decreased. The older and more experienced superintendents in the sample were usually more aware of their communication responsibilities and were more favorable toward such responsibilities.

Seminar on mass communications. A three-day seminar at Temple University in 1965 brought together a number of research specialists in communication, directors of school-community relations, school superintendents, and professors of educational administration. Two important purposes of the seminar were to review and bring together some of the outstanding research in mass communication and to point out the implications of this research for use in school-community relations programs. A number of interesting research findings presented at the seminar are discussed in the following sections.

The individual selection process. In looking at the contributions of sociology to mass communication, Harold Mendelsohn discussed the impact of the selection process employed by individuals when they receive a communications message (20). What people do with mass communications depends upon how they select what messages they will be exposed to and what they will retain. The selection process is affected by the social status of the individual (his actual and desired group identifications and his position in informal communication networks). On many important issues, messages which come through the mass media alone serve primarily to reinforce attitudes already held. This selective process also has an effect upon the recall of information by an individual. David White (25) referred to a study by Swanson which found that "the way in which each individual related ideas to his own needs and values had more effect upon recall than repetition of a theme by either the speaker or the media (24)." White also pointed out that the process is somewhat different in the case of news of important events. In this case, the initial knowledge comes directly from the mass media and any conversations with opinion leaders simply reinforce previous knowledge (5).

Personal influence of leaders. Voting studies have shown that people seldom act on information received from the mass media alone. Personal influence is the major factor in decisions on how to vote (22). Based on their study of the flow of mass communication, Katz and Lazarsfeld concluded that in many cases information comes from the mass media while the decision about what to do with the information is determined in conversations with opinion leaders (13).

Attitudes and new information. In reviewing psychological studies of communication, Daniel Katz (12) cited an opinion expressed by Krech and Crutchfield (15) that people accept new information and experience in such a way as to cause the least possible changes in the structure of the attitudes, beliefs, and values they already hold. Consequently, people are not likely to change very much in regard to areas about which they already have well developed ideas and information. Hyman and Sheatsley (11) found evidence that people seek information which is in harmony with the attitudes they already hold and that the same information is often interpreted in different ways. In fact, people tend to organize incoming information in relation to the purposes to which they will use the information rather than organizing it in such a way as to faithfully represent the facts as they were given (3).

Beliefs often accepted without evidence. McGuire tested the commonly held view that extreme beliefs in areas where there is almost universal agreement in society are difficult to change (19). He used four statements about health on which there was tremendous agreement (average of 13.26 on a 15 point scale). After reading a 1,000-word essay containing arguments against the statements, the agreement was cut in half (average of 6.64). McGuire explained his findings by stating that many common attitudes and beliefs are accepted without any real evidence or information to support them. These beliefs are abandoned when attacked because there are no arguments or information that can be used to defend the beliefs.

McGuire also found that presenting arguments both for and against certain beliefs strengthens resistance against later attempts to change opinions. This finding was supported in a study by Lumsdaine and Janis (16) which discovered that a two-sided argument was more effective when the audience was originally in agreement with the communicator's opinion and was later on exposed to efforts to get them to change their opinions.

Sources of information and acceptance. The source of a message is an important factor in determing whether or not a message will be accepted immediately after it is transmitted, but the influence of the source seems to wear off over a period of time. Hovland and Wiess (9) used sources of information which had high and low credibility for transmitting the same message and found that opinions changed more when the high credibility source was used. However, when the opinions were again assessed four weeks later, both groups showed the same positive shift in opinions. The content of the message had had an impact; the prestige of the source did not. The implication of this finding is that the connection between the source of a message and its content is not the same when the message is first received as it is in memory. People tend to forget the source of information, but not the information itself. The rumor process is an example of this.

Conclusions and Implications

The schools and the voters are far apart in terms of the understanding needed to provide adequate support for public education. In order to bridge this gap, communication must be improved. To do so, the reasons for the gap must be dealt with. The two main reasons for the gap are (1) the different values held by school people and voters and (2) the increasing size of school districts which does not allow much opportunity for voters to have a say in school policy. In many cases, the only time the voters are given an opportunity to communicate their opinions to the schools is by voting "yes" or "no" in a school election.

Except for parents, schools have little immediate support. However, education is too important for the public to neglect it entirely. Therefore, schools should attempt to establish more communication with the public. This must be a two-way process in order that voters will be able to communicate their opinions to the schools.

Voters have indicated that they want more personal contact with school representatives--but they feel that only a few school people are well informed on school topics. This implies that the schools need better programs for informing and developing school personnel as communicating agents (21).

School people and journalists should work together to reach agreements about the types of information which would be appropriate for news reports and features. They should also attempt to develop specific ways for school personnel to work with reporters and editors in an effort to make better information accesible to the public. Journalists could also help school people develop school publications which would be readable, brief, make good use of headings and cue words, and present their messages in a personal way (18).

Mass media can be used by educators to reinforce favorable attitudes already held by the public and to provide the initial information which may start a chain of communication on a more personal level so that influence leaders can begin to operate in an effort to change unfavorable attitudes. If successful changes in attitudes are to be brought about, as much attention must be given to the receivers of school messages as to the messages themselves (6).

Carroll Hanson has pointed out the importance of the board of education and the superintendent in an effective program of communicating with the public.

> Since only the school board and the superintendent can really have an overall picture of the total operation and needs of a school system and must therefore ask for voter support based on limited information, it is essential that the voters be willing to accept the word of the board and the superintendent on many issues. For this reason, much greater effort should be made in most school systems to acquaint the public with board members and the superintendent in order to create a 'climate of faith' (7).

After developing a definite policy for communicating with the public, the next step a school board should take is to develop a strategy of communication. In the fourth chapter of his Education and Public Understanding, Gordon McCloskey outlines some principles of communication strategy (17).

Take the initiative. The first message a person accepts about an event or issue has the most influence on his opinions. He will usually resist later attempts to change his opinions. The schools should tell their story first, before opponents have had a chance to influence the public to accept poorly founded opinions.

Be affirmative. Place emphasis on what can be accomplished and how it can be achieved rather than dwelling on problems and difficulties.

Initiate constructive frames of reference. Get the public to view the school message in a positive way. Depending upon the local situation, school officials might point out to the public that schools aim to help young people understand the ideals and traditions of American life, to teach the "fundamentals," and to give all pupils a chance to be successful. Good schools make our country strong and promote the general economic welfare of the people.

Make information accessible. Plan a communications program that will insure that people get the information they require in order to make decisions about the schools in relation to their needs and interests.

Be truthful. Consciously or subconsciously, people appraise the reliability of information sources. If people come to distrust a source of information, they will resent and reject further messages from that source.

Get the public to participate. Participation can create more understanding than simple communication alone. Participation provides more personalized conversations in which the participant can become exposed to more and better information about schools. Participation develops stronger commitment of emotions and values.

Involve community leaders. The general public is much more likely to respond favorably to messages coming from persons the public believes to be informed and trustworthy.

Reward participants. Recognition provides a psychological reward which encourages those already active to continue their efforts and others to become active.

Clarify the benefits, services and needs of education. Try to maintain a balance between satisfaction with past progress and sufficient discontent to insure a desire for improvement. Any indication that past efforts have yielded no results tends to discourage further effort.

Avoid the use of threatening messages. Such messages tend to evoke negative and hostile reactions. Immediate results from threatening communication may seem satisfactory but in the long run such communication may destroy the kind of public attitude which is necessary for continued support.

Prevent rumors by providing facts. This means that communication must be continuous. All available media should be used and important messages should be repeated.

Be friendly and show concern for citizens' interests. Education is not the only concern of citizens and the schools are not the only local agencies concerned with education. Citizens appreciate friendly interest in their concerns and local agencies are more likely to cooperate with the schools if the schools have acknowledged the educational value of such agencies to the public.

Appraise the communication process as well as sources of aid and opposition. Efforts to improve the communication process should be based on evaluations of the present program. A communication program can be more effective if aimed at specific segments of the public which may either support or oppose the schools. These are the groups which will influence the large percentage of persons who do not usually give school matters much attention.

--James D. Wilson

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RECRUITMENT SOURCES: WHERE TO FIND NEW TEACHERS

The supply of qualified teachers continues to be one of the foremost problems in public education (2). This paper deals with sources of instructional staff for the schools, and the research reviewed has implications for all phases of the recruitment and employment functions.

Questions

1. What sources of teacher personnel are commonly used in staff recruitment?

2. What are some potential sources of teacher personnel not currently utilized to any great extent?

3. What is the relative value of each of these sources? That is to say, how many teacher education graduates or how many military service veterans, for example, are interested in teaching as a career?

Review of Studies

The Research Division of the National Education Association has identified the major sources of teacher supply as (1) bachelor's degree teachers who were ready for initial employment, (2) qualified former teachers, (3) teacher education graduates who have postponed entry into teaching, and (4) people with bachelor's degrees and necessary personal characteristics but no professional education preparation (2).

Teacher education graduates. The number of college graduates completing teacher education program has increased substantially in recent years. According to the National Education Association, which continues to be the major source of data on teacher supply and demand, only 26.7 percent of the total number of college graduates completed teacher education programs in 1950. By comparison, of the class of 1966, 38.2 percent of the graudates had completed teacher education programs (2).

A continuing problem has been the imbalance of persons prepared to teach on the secondary level compared to those with elementary level preparation. Studies by Bartels (2) which covered the periods from 1951 through 1964, investigated this imbalance in 27 states and the District of Columbia. Demand, in the study, was determined by the number of new teachers employed, and the supply by the number of teacher education graduates. The results of the studies suggested that in secondary education, the teacher supply exceeded the demand with the reverse being true in elementary education. A comparison between two studies by Bartels furthermore provided some basis for the belief that this imbalance was increasing.

The Research Division of the National Education Association has noted that the number of persons who prepared for elementary school teaching in 1966 was 1.9 percent less that the number for the previous year, but the net change for the high school level was a gain of 10.3 percent. The Research Division has also reported that the overall changes in the supply of prospective teachers graduated from state institutions in 1966 were not very large compared to 1965 data. California experienced a decrease of 41 percent from 1965 in elementary education graduates. Some sources attributed the drop to a movement from a four-year to a five-year standard for elementary school teachers, and to the requirement of an academic major for elementary education (2).

Sources in urban school systems. A survey of teacher mobility in New York City in 1963 (3) found evidence that local colleges and universities were the major source of teacher supply for the system. In 1962, the number of college and university students completing certification requirements in New York State was 9,571. Included in this group were 535 men and 3,827 women who prepared for elementary education and 2,181 men and 3,028 women who prepared for secondary education. Of this total 1,946 were graduated from the four colleges which comprise the City University of New York. These four colleges (Brooklyn, City College, Hunter, and Queens) have supplied an estimated 60 percent of the approximately 43,000 teachers in the New York City Public Schools. Most of the remaining 40 percent of teachers in the New York schools have come from colleges and universities within the New York City area. A relatively small proportion had come from outside the state.

Reports on employment status indicated that 80 percent of the students who had completed a state-approved undergraduate teacher education program in the City University of New York entered the New York City Public Schools. This 80 percent figure had remained constant for 10 years. No data were available from other colleges and universities as to how many of their graduates entered the New York City schools, but placement officers at New York University estimated that roughly 50 percent of those completing teacher training at that institution entered the New York schools. Teachers College, Columbia offered only graduate work in education, and figures were difficult to obtain since many people in their programs were already teaching in the New York schools. An official of the Placement Office at Teachers College estimated that of those who register for employment, approximately 5 percent were placed in the New York City Public Schools. Of the teachers interviewed in the study, 62.7 percent had received their B.A. from one of the four city colleges (3).

A cursory investigation by the New York survey team was made of teacher sources in Chicago and Philadelphia. Chicago had two four-year colleges, Chicago Teachers College North and South. About 80 percent of the graduates of these two colleges joined the Chicago Public School System. These colleges, however, were not the largest suppliers of teachers to the system. A large number of teachers came from Roosevelt University, the University of Chicago, Illinois State Normal, the University of Illinois, Loyola, De Paul, and Indiana University. Recruiters for the Chicago public schools regularly visited Minnesota, South Dakota, Wisconsin, Iowa, Michigan, Indiana, Ohio, Kentucky, Tennessee, Mississippi, Texas, Oklahoma, Louisiana, Alabama, and Georgia as well as Illinois in their recruitment tours.

For the most part, recruitment activities in Philadelphia, the survey found, were concentrated within 100 miles of the city. There was no recruitment of people from New York State or Western Pennsylvania. Most teachers came from Pennsylvania colleges and universities including Temple, Pennsylvania State, Villanova, St. Joseph's, and La Salle. Temple University supplied the largest number of teachers for the Philadelphia Public School System (3).

Teacher shortage in Los Angeles. Since World War II, Los Angeles had experienced a shortage of teachers of one type or another almost every year. In preparing the recruitment program for September of the 1966-67 school year, the school system faced an extraordinarily heavy demand for 4,500 new teachers caused by projected implementation of several programs of a compensatory education nature. These programs were to be funded out of state and federal resources. Aside from this, there was a severe shortage of elementary teachers, the worst in many years, due primarily to a drop in the number of elementary student teachers trained in the Los Angeles area. A number of steps were taken to intensify the recruitment program. Recruitment trips to other parts of the country were more than doubled over those of the preceding year. Some two hundred campuses were visited compared to eighty the year before. These recruiting trips were scheduled at earlier dates than they had previously been scheduled. The time for processing recruits and making contract offers was cut in half over the preceding year, and credential service to new recruits was substantially increased. This service included information and explanation of new regulations, individual counseling, and evaluation of transcripts (1).

In spite of the expanded recruiting program and increasing staffing needs for the system, however, there was a sharp drop in new recruits at the end of the spring drive from both local and out-of-state sources. Plans were made for an intensive summer community recruitment drive for local teachers who might be employed on regular or provisional credentials. This drive received good support from newspapers, television, and radio. Appeals were made to any qualified persons, housewives, persons in other fields of work, and especially to former teachers and to teachers on leaves of absences. Results of the drive provided adequate staff for the fall term (1).

Colleges and universities as a source. Many teachers have entered the profession directly from college and university campuses, and much recruitment effort has been directed toward these institutions of higher learning. An appraisal of the college campuses and their student bodies as sources of potential teacher candidates therefore seems in order. A Canadian study has investigated the attitudes of some two thousand Canadian university students toward entering the academic profession at the college or university level. Some of the findings had implications for school boards and administrators of secondary and elementary school districts, however. These students were fairly representative of all Canadian university students with respect to such characteristics as socio-economic class, age, sex, and family educational level (5).

Of the students attending Canadian universities at any given time, the study found that approximately one-half of them had considered, with varying degrees of seriousness, the possibility of choosing the academic profession as a career. Only about 12 percent, however, considered this career very seriously, while another 13 percent had considered it fairly seriously. This means that at any given time, about one-quarter of university students had seriously considered the academic profession as a possible career (5).

The proportions of students who had considered the academic profession and the proportion who actually chose it increased with increasing levels of educational attainment. Seniors were more likely to consider and enter teaching than freshmen, and graduate students more likely than either of the former groups. On the whole, in comparison with students who had never considered an academic career, those who chose it were more likely to see it as being a challenging and demanding job involving the type of work in which they were particularly interested and for which they were particularly suited. They were also less likely to see it as involving the disadvantages of pressures to conform and encroachment on time for social and family life. All groups, both those who had considered teaching and those who had not, agreed generally that an academic career involved a relatively low degree of competition with others, that it involved stimulating colleagues, and that it had high prestige in the community and was a socially important job. On the other hand, in contrast to others, those who anticipated entering the academic profession saw it as offering a lower income and fewer opportunities for the exercise of leadership. The majority of those who planned to enter the teaching field regarded it as being attractive because they saw it as involving independence from supervision, and challenging and demanding work concerned primarily with discovering new knowledge rather than with application of existing knowledge (5).

Those students who had favorable attitudes toward an academic career had somewhat different notions of the kinds of abilities required, and the nature of the profession itself. The more favorably disposed toward the academic profession a student was, the more likely he was to regard as important the capacity for critical thought, an analytical and objective mind, an imaginative and unrestrictive mind, a wide range of intellectual interests, and a capacity for discovery. On the other hand, he was less likely to consider the ability to express thoughts clearly and to think quickly as being important for success in the academic profession. Consistent with this image of the academician was the fact that this group was less likely to regard as important all of what are usually considered personal relations characteristics, including confidence when speaking in public, patience and understanding, an interest in people and an ability to handle people. Very few students in either group regarded unconventional ideas and modes of behavior as important for the academician (5).

There seemed to be striking differences in responses with regard to estimates of ability to enter and succeed in the academic profession. The more favorable the disposition of the respondent towards the academic profession, the greater was the proportion who thought they had the ability to succeed in this career. While almost every one of those who planned to enter the profession thought he had the required intellectual ability, only one-third of those who had never seriously considered an academic career had this opinion of themselves. Similarly, over three-quarters of the former as compared to only 15 percent of the latter, thought that they had the appropriate kind of personality to succeed in the academic profession (5).

Although as many as 60 percent of graduates of Canadian universities, according to the sample, considered entering the academic profession at some time in their lives, only one in ten of them eventually selected it as a career. Another 30 percent, however, were still considering this as a possibility in their final year. Whether a university student seriously considered the academic profession as a career or not, depended in large part on two things: his image of the profession and his image of himself (5).

Military services as a source. Hensel (4) has completed a study to determine whether the military services offered a potential source for teachers in vocational and technical education. For purposes of this study, military officials designated one Army, one Navy, and one Air Force base, each of which represented a typical separation center for the particular service. A total of 1,152 enlisted men completed a military questionnaire and approximately 27 percent of these men indicated an interest in teaching as a future occupation. The results varied slightly between the services with about 24 percent of the men separating from the Navy, over 25 percent of the men separating from the Army, and nearly 34 percent of the men separating from the Air Force expressing an interest in teaching as a career. Enlisted men separating from the service who were less than 21 years of age did not appear to be a viable source for vocational and technical teachers. The best source for teachers in relation to an age category was found to be those enlisted men who were from 21 to 22 years old. Not only were large numbers of men separated from the service at this age, but they expressed above average interest in teaching. In addition, the men in this group were young enough to be able to afford the time it would take to obtain the education necessary to meet various state certification requirements (4).

The level of education which had been attained prior to entering the military service was found to have a direct relationship to interest in teaching as a career. Enlisted men separated from the service who had had 13 or more years of education prior to entering the armed forces represented the group with the most interest in teaching. Ninety percent of the men surveyed, and 90 percent of the men who expressed an interest in teaching had served from two to four years in the military service. No positive relationship was determined between the years of active military service and percentage of enlisted men interested in teaching (4). There was a positive relationship between military rank of the enlisted men and their interest in teaching. The percentage of men interested in teaching increased consistently as rank increased (4).

Forty-two percent of the enlisted men who had expressed an interest in teaching had completed course work in some phase of technical, trade, and industrial areas (4). Enlisted men separating from the military service expressed a high degree of willingness to take additional training in order to meet teacher certification requirements. Almost 82 percent of the respondents interested in teaching were willing to take one or more years of additional training to qualify as teachers of vocational and technical subjects. The majority of the men interested in teaching would be willing to teach at any level. Also, 53 percent of the men interested in teaching were willing to move to another state to accept a teaching position. One hundred and four men were classified as outstanding teacher prospects for vocational and technical areas. These men had expressed an interest in teaching and had an educational and experience background which would qualify them as outstanding teacher prospects. The 104 men represented 9 percent of the sample of 1,152 enlisted men separating from the three branches of the armed forces (4).

Pre-college sources: Future Teacher Clubs. The City Schools of Detroit have considered students still at the secondary and elementary levels as potential teacher recruits. The Personnel Division has sponsored clubs of future teachers ranging from the elementary through the junior high and the senior high schools. In 1957, at the beginning of this program, only twelve high school clubs served three hundred members. In June, 1967, over 4,500 pupils were participating in 161 local school units. An average of twenty-five to thirty members was the usual size of these groups, although clubs ranged from as few as eight members to as many as 130 members. Primary emphasis in the daily activities of club members was service to school and community. This was common to all levels. Since 1962 there had been a continuous increase in cadet teaching and tutoring which carried out a second purpose of the clubs, to familiarize students with the training, activities, and responsibilities of a teacher. All levels explored various fields in education and helped students plan for college. At the secondary level such visits crystalized specific enrollment plans and concerned entrance requirements, programs, costs, and facilities (6).

The success of Detroit Future Teacher Clubs and those across the country has been apparent in reading the credentials of beginning teachers interviewed at colleges. An increasing number have listed Future Teacher Club membership as an extracurricular activity in the high school (6)

Conclusions and Implications

Experience of most school districts, especially those in large urban areas, seems to indicate that the best sources of teacher supply are to be found locally. The New York teacher mobility survey by Griffiths (3) found evidence that at all organizational levels, the prime reason given for joining the staff of the city schools was residence in the metropolitan area. While colleges and universities have been a prime source of qualified teachers, the Los Angeles experience has shown that qualified former teachers and people with bachelor's degrees but no professional preparation are also good potential sources of supply locally. Local teachers were found for Los Angeles where intensified recruitment drive in other parts of the country had failed (1).

Close working relationships between public schools, teacher training institutions, and state departments of education seem essential to meet problems of teacher shortage. A large and excellent reservoir of potentially fine teachers exists in most metropolitan areas which can be drawn upon in times of critical need. The reservoir is made up of college graduates, housewives, and persons in other fields of work, who have excellent scholastic records in college, the personal qualifications, and the background of experience for working effectively with children. Television, newspapers, and radio stations can give valuable help to a school district in a metropolitan area in recruitment. Teacher salaries must be kept highly favorable, the highest or close to the highest in the state, if the largest city area and the largest school district are to compete effectively with smaller and more attractive suburban school systems for the limited supply of new teachers. Screening procedures for the employment of regular probationary teachers should not be allowed to interfere with the recruitment process in meeting critical shortages. In other words, get the qualified recruit on the job first, then examine him closely for career status in the system (1).

The Griffiths survey (3) concluded that recruitment procedures by the New York City Public Schools were largely ineffective. Out of a sample of 1,471 teachers questioned in the survey, only one response out of the total number indicated that a person living outside the New York City area joined the staff as a result of formal recruitment.

There appears to be some basis then for review and evaluation of recruitment techniques. Since most teachers are found in local sources, a concentration of recruitment efforts toward these sources would seem justified. Local rather than out-of-state and national recruitment drives would be most beneficial to the school district. Although recent graduates of teacher training institutions are a major source of new candidates for teaching positions, more emphasis should be placed on other sources of supply such as former teachers and persons--men separating from military service, for example--who with a moderate amount of training could be prepared for entry into the classroom.

--Sam P. Sentelle

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DECISION-MAKING AND SYSTEMS ANALYSIS

A knowledge of the decision-making process and the systems approach is needed today. The term "systems analysis" covers a host of familiar management operations that are used every day in education, business, industry and the Department of Defense. However, some writers have, indeed, written some startling articles in this area. Many are highly opinionated without much depth and insight. An introduction to some concepts concerning the systems approach has been included in this report. Attention was devoted to program budgeting, cost-benefit analysis, accounting, and decision-making.

Questions

1. Do schoolmen have to learn systems analysis to survive?

2. Will the role of the school boards be affected by systems analysis?

3. What can program budgeting (program planning) do for school systems?

4. Can the major limitations of program budgeting be overcome in the area of cost-benefit analysis?

5. Are there going to be many important changes in accounting systems within the next ten years?

Review of Studies

Educational systems analysis in general.

In 1959 Kershaw and McKean published a document about systems analysis in education (10). This was an exploratory study to determine to what extent systems analysis could contribute to decisions regarding educational variables such as expenditure per pupil, student and teacher time in class, and instructional costs. The problem confronted in this study was one related to measurement of effectiveness of the total educational program.

The question regarding the knowledge of systems analysis and the survival of schoolmen in the era of educational technology is discussed in a book by Pfeiffer (13). This book discusses systems analysis as a way of thinking. Pfeiffer contends that systems analysis is an approach to decision-making that presents several alternatives and not just a single solution. A knowledge of computer programming is not necessary to understand the systems approach.

C. West Churchman (5) has recently published a book entitled The Systems Approach. He answers the question: "What is a system?" by discussing thinking in systems terminology, efficiency, and input-output. Applications of systems thinking are investigated in terms of program budgeting and management information systems. The systems approach to the future and to the human being are also discussed.

A work by Banghart (1) entitled Educational Systems Analysis furnishes the educator with an orientation to systems technology. The non-mathematically trained person will find resource material that will enable him to apply systems techniques to education. An introduction to systems cost analysis and program budgeting is included in this book written for the educational administrator.

Planning and Programming Budgeting System (PPBS). An early work on program budgeting was published by Greenhouse (6) in 1966. He considers the ideas, terminology, and rationale associated with the government's move into a Planning Programming Budgeting System (PPBS). Two issues are discussed in the article. One theme deals with how agencies are to be held accountable for discharging the central purpose of distributing agency-produced goods to the public. The other general area is devoted to understanding of objectives, programs, program alternatives, outputs, progress measurements, inputs, alternative ways to do a given job, and systems analysis. The understanding of these terms will help one to see the difference between PPBS and the former federal budgeting systems.

The main purpose of a study by Burkhead (2) in 1967 was to examine the allocation of resources within large city school systems and to trace the relationships between allocation levels and the resulting outputs of the schools. In this work the author also suggests procedures for the measurement of input and output relationships in public schools.

PPBS should be a step toward wiser allocation of the nation's resources. The three major factors of program budgeting are structural, analytical, and administrative-organizational in nature according to Hirsch (9). He illustrates how a budget might look when constructed on a program concept basis.

This technique might lead to Congressional consideration of all education monies as 20 federal program areas rather than in the budgets of more than 40 agencies at present.

A comprehensive work which offers definition, procedural descriptions of systems theory, operations analysis, PERT, cost-effectiveness, input-output analysis, and application of PPBS to education has been completed by Hartley (8). Various illustrative guides, forms, flow charts, planning calendars, and budget formats already in use by several school districts are presented in this book.

According to Hartley the utilization of program budgeting will result in increased rationality in school budget making. He states that program budgeting is a type of systems analysis which focuses upon performance objectives rather than traditional line-item categories. One benefit of program budgeting is that it enables modification of future budgets on the basis of individual program success. However, Hartley points out that the major limitation to acceptance of program budgeting is the lack of clear cut or well defined educational programs.

Another limitation to program planning is in the area of cost-benefit analysis. The chief limitation is, in fact, in the area of measurement of the effectiveness of a given program (the benefit). Have we reached a point in governmental decision-making where political rationality (an undefined term) is being displaced by economic efficiency? This question is discussed by Wildavsky (18). He deals with some popular modes of actually achieving a cost-benefit analysis in program budgeting. The primary weakness, according to Wildavsky, is the inability to measure the output of changed values and enjoyment gains that, he says, cannot be quantified.

When cost-benefit analysis is applied to education there are problems in defining the goals in the educational process (12). However, the federal government is engaged in research to improve the area of cost-benefit analysis. Some hope is expressed in the prospect of developing a comprehensive quantitative model of the American educational system in the paper.

In general, PPBS is an innovation in the area of decision-making. A theory by Cancian (4) is related to this point. He believes that there is a positive relationship between wealth and adoption of innovations. In agriculture, he found, the "middle class" to be more conservative than predicted under normal circumstances.

Systems analysis in accounting. The other familiar area under the umbrella term "system analysis" is accounting. There have been many studies dealing with decision-making and the process of accounting. Butterworth (3) has proposed to clarify the nature of the relationship between the information and decision structures of the firm. His emphasis was on management accounting. This study is oriented toward computer usage in a breakeven setting. Actually, the educational is based on the non-profit idea--a breakeven business.

Another study concerning decision-making and accounting has been conducted by Louma (11). He has found that decision-making in small firms is not very structured. Furthermore, he has found that certain decisions are, in fact, made without the use of sophisticated accounting information.

The nature and use of accounting data has also been looked at by Summers (17). Some results of interest to accountants were (a) that accounting data ranked far down the list of useful data preferred by many decision-makers and (b) that subjective data such as subjective probabilities are in use by many decision-makers even though such data are unavailable through the accounting reports.

Revisions in public school accounting systems are a certainty during the next decade (15). According to Richardson, from the standpoint of control, accountability, up-to-date information for decision-making, reporting and cost analysis, the accrual system, supplemented by an encumbrance system, will meet the needs in the future. He also contends that the rising cost of public education, increased competition for tax dollars between public education and other government services make a cost accounting system essential in management of school systems (16). Finally he suggests that by using data processing equipment it is feasible to determine total cost, including depreciation (14).

Conclusions and Implications

One of the most recent techniques of systems analysis is program budgeting. This tool is basically concerned with wise distribution of resources based on how good each program really is. One major limitation of program planning is in measuring the benefit of a specific program (7). It is suggested that this limitation can, indeed, be overcome and the literature reveals some progress in this direction. Once the limitation of measure of program benefit has been overcome the cost-benefit analysis will be the chief determining factor in the allocation of resources.

Although the process of accounting has been around for a long time it was shown that the use of accounting data ranked low on the list preferred by decision-makers. On the other hand, subjective data such as subjective possibilities are in use by many decision-makers. The use of accounting data may become more widespread when many school accounting systems are revised. This revision is expected during the next ten years. The revision of accounting systems will also enable a loose approximation of depreciation through the use of data processing systems.

--C. Kenneth Tanner

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TECHNIQUES FOR RECRUITING TEACHERS

Recruitment, essentially, represents the first contact of potential teachers with a particular school system. As such, the recruitment function is one of the most important activities of the school administration, for from these initial contacts will come the pool of applicants from which appointments must be made to fill old vacancies and new positions. And the teachers entering the system will determine to a greater or lesser degree the nature of the school system and the quality of the educational service which it performs for the public.

Questions

Suprisingly little attention is given to the recruitment function in relation to its importance.

1. What recruitment techniques have been used to attract new personnel to school systems?

2. What is the present status of the recruitment function among public school systems? How does recruitment by the public schools compare with recruitment by industry?

3. How has the recruiting function changed in recent times? Are school systems required more than in the past to conduct active recruitment campaigns?

Review of Studies

A national survey of recruitment techniques. The Engebretson study (2) at the University of Nebraska in 1966 reviewed a national sample of survey data on teacher recruitment and selection techniques. Public school districts and smaller districts in particular, the study found, frequently lacked the formal basis of board policy and established staffing goals and objectives essential to a good recruitment and selection program. School districts, especially smaller ones, did not devote adequate resources, time or personnel to the recruitment and selection of teaching personnel. Information concerning teacher candidates was limited by personnel practices of the school districts. High value was placed on relatively few sources of information and teacher evaluation therefore was not comprehensive or objective.

Another finding of the Engebretson study was that school districts made limited use of the sources available for recruitment. Small districts in particular conducted a limited search for prospective teaching

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candidates with the result of too few prospects. All public school districts, the study observed, relied heavily upon the interview as a recruitment practice. Descriptive brochures and other printed materials, especially in the smaller districts, were not utilized to their fullest potential.

Recruiting in New York City. An extensive survey of recruiting practices in New York City directed by Dan Griffiths (3), concluded that these recruitment procedures were ineffective. A sample of 1,025 city teachers was interviewed to gather data on personnel practices, and the records of 413 teachers first hired by the city in 1950 were studied to determine career patterns. Most teachers came from New York City, the findings indicated. Academic high school teachers had both the highest turnover rate and the greatest proportion planning to enter administration. Among major reasons for joining the system were location, income, hours, vacations and personal contacts with teachers already in the system.

Before World Wal II, a formal program for recruitment of teachers seemed unnecessary, for the New York City school system enjoyed the blessing of having more qualified applicants than there were teaching vacancies. Occasionally, during the war, officials of the board of education visited colleges in the New York area to speak to students about opportunities available for teaching in the city schools, but such efforts were personal gestures rather than organized attempts to recruit. After the war, the situation was reversed, and a shortage of qualified teachers was felt increasingly in the schools. Added to the student population explosion was the influx of Puerto Ricans and of Negroes from the South. Their language and substandard educational backgrounds required specially skilled teachers who were willing to work with students of such backgrounds. In addition, the exodus of capable teachers to the suburbs and to industry, where salaries and working conditions were more desirable, compounded an already acute problem of teacher shortage (3).

The board of education did what it could to meet its immediate needs, but it was not until the spring of 1955 that the superintendent established a committee on teacher recruitment. This committee functioned as a guide for other committees of the board which were concerned with the problem of staff recruitment. The purpose of the committee was to plan, coordinate, and stimulate recruitment activities. In November 1955, the board established the Office of Teacher Recruitment to coordinate recruitment activities with placement directors in the metropolitan area. From this office representatives were sent to colleges in several of the northeastern states to speak to students and parents about opportunities available in the New York City Schools. Over the years this office published and distributed a variety of colorful brochures and pamphlets highlighting the advantages of teaching in New

York City.

Between 1956 and 1958 the committee on teacher recruitment published interim and annual reports presenting the problems of staff recruitment, and suggesting ways and means of overcoming them. A review of these reports and of minutes of the meetings of the committee indicated that its prime purposes were discussing problems relative to staff recruitment, recommending solutions, and publicizing the need for teachers in New York City. The most limiting factor, which sharply curtailed the productivity of the committee, is that it could not actually hire teachers.

The board of examiners worked rather closely with the committee on teacher recruitment. Several changes in examination procedures had been put into effect as a result of joint action between the committee and the board. Included among these were quicker scoring of exams and the administration of examinations outside the New York City area. The latter was possible because members of the board often join the recruiters in visiting colleges.

The activities of the Office of Teacher Recruitment have included: (1) touring the colleges in the northeastern states to interest students of good potential, (2) publishing recruitment materials, (3) sending letters to college juniors in the city colleges over the superintendent's signature, (4) sending letters to parents of selected junior high school students, and (5) setting up examination centers at Oswego and Cornell and in Washington, D. C. The office has also undertaken such activities as placing display advertisements as well as classified ads in New Jersey and New York newspapers, celebrating Future Teachers Day and encouraging Future Teacher Clubs throughout the city, cooperating with community agencies (Rotary, NAACP, Urban League, etc.), and delivering on-campus talks.

Recruitment procedures in Chicago. The Griffiths survey (3) also reviewed recruitment procedures in other urban school systems. As in New York, the tempo of recruitment in Chicago had accelerated in recent years. One school official spent most of his time on the road talking to students at various colleges and universities. His purpose was to indicate to prospective teachers the number and types of vacancies in various teaching fields and to outline the procedures which must be followed in order to obtain a teaching position in the system. The recruiter could not offer a contract to an applicant because each candidate was required to make personal application and to write the examinations under the direction of the board of examiners. Often members of the board of examiners visited college campuses to address graduating groups and to confer with placement counselors. No effort was made to recruit teachers already working in other school systems.

Recruitment procedures in Philadelphia. At the time of the Griffiths survey, the Philadelphia Public School System had just begun an organized recruitment program. It was limited, however, in that the individual who was responsible for the program was occupied with many other duties which took up a great deal of his time. It was anticipated that more time would be scheduled for recruitment activities so that this person could concentrate his efforts toward recruiting people for the system. The director of certification and several subject-matter specialists visited colleges and universities and spoke to students in their junior and senior years. For the most part, however, people simply applied for jobs and are not actively recruited. Recruiters could not offer contracts to candidates. As in Chicago, recruiters could only inform potential candidates of available positions in the Philadelphia schools. The candidate was required to make application for a position and had to pass exams given under the direction of the division of certification. There was no active program for recruiting experienced teachers. The major limiting factor here was the fact that experienced teachers could not be given equivalent credit for past teaching experience (3).

Recruitment in Detroit. The Detroit Public School System employed one person as chief recruiter. Along with some central office and local field people from the system, the recruiter spent considerable time looking for candidates. Recruitment materials are sent to every approved teacher training institution. Personal contact was made mostly in the nearby states. Wayne State University, the University of Michigan, and Michigan State University supplied the majority of the teachers in the Detroit Public Schools. Approximately 20 percent of the entering teachers had had teaching experience elsewhere prior to joining the Detroit school system. In the main, however, these people applied for positions and were not recruited. The recruitment team from Detroit could offer a contract on the spot to a candidate in the upper half of his graduating class who makes a favorable impression during the interview. This candidate did not have to take the examinations (3).

Philadelphia, Chicago, Detroit: similarities and differences. The Griffiths report (3) noted that in each of the urban school systems of Philadelphia, Chicago, and Detroit, the tempo of recruitment had accelerated in recent years. Examination procedures were used in these three systems as a device for screening candidates.

The major sources of new teachers for Chicago, Philadelphia, and Detroit were the nearby colleges and universities. Except in Detroit, almost all incoming teachers were new to the profession. Chicago had two city colleges which supply a significant number of teachers to the school system. Philadelphia and Detroit did not have city colleges. Detroit recruiters could offer a contract to students in the top 50 percent of their graduating class who made a favorable impression on the recruiting team. Recruiters from Philadelphia and Chicago could not offer contracts and served mainly to advise the candidate on procedures to follow in order to be placed on eligibility lists.

Officials in all three school systems offered explanations as to what factors impeded recruitment programs. (1) Population changes in large cities, with their concomitant variations in the socio-economic, cultural, and educational backgrounds of pupils, discouraged many candidates who fear difficulties in the teacher learning setting. (2) The image of the large city in the small-town mind kept many teachers of good potential away from the large cities. (3) Poor teaching conditions--large classes, the mixed composition of the student population, and inadequate facilities--deterred many potentially good teachers from teaching in large cities. (4) The examination procedures that a candidate had to go through, except in Detroit, made capable people difficult to attract. As one recruitment official in Philadelphia said, "The exams stand in the way of getting good people. We are hog-tied by exams so we can't compete with other recruiters who can sign a candidate on the spot."

All of the officials interviewed in the three school systems were asked to recommend desirable recruitment procedures. (1) Dispel the apprehension of the young for the unknown. Many young people have been afraid to teach in the big city school systems because they dreaded bad teaching conditions. The image of the big city school system needed to be changed so that people generally would realize that conditions were not so bad as they appeared. (2) Expand the student teaching programs. Student teachers should be provided with experience in difficult schools. Colleges and universities should be encouraged to enlarge their role in this area. (3) Give greater recognition to the importance of the job done by the teacher training institutions. A strong liaison should be maintained between the school system and the teacher training institutions. (4) Concentrate greater effort on recruitment of potential teachers from liberal arts colleges. Students in their junior year should be contacted and advised that in their senior year electives they can obtain enough credits to receive interim certification. (5) Establish strong salary schedules. (6) Recruit more men, in order to stabilize the experience factor of teaching staffs. This would help to overcome the high turnover among young women teachers. (7) Start a drive to encourage more of the most promising students to enter the teaching profession. (8) Use teachers as recruiting agents.

Recruitment and selection in Missouri. A Missouri survey of some 47 selected school superintendents or their designated assistants concluded that information available for use in the screening program was not always used by school administrators in the selection of certified personnel as a personal responsibility. The practices used in recruitment and selection of personnel, the study found, were not necessarily related to the size of schools. Necessity to fill a specific vacancy along with other circumstances beyond their control sometimes caused school officials to recommend the employment of applicants who would have been rejected had more applicants been available (1).

Recruitment techniques in Pennsylvania. A Temple University study investigated recruitment techniques in Pennsylvania in 1965. Three hundred twenty-three school systems participated in the study out of 432 which had been invited. The investigation found that 44 percent of the schools used some form of material or some device to recruit teachers although none of the school systems participating employed a full-time recruiter. Many publications used in recruiting were produced for purposes other than for recruiting teachers. School systems used publications of other organizations, especially if these publications presented material describing a facet of the community of interest to a prospective teacher. Fifty-two school systems supplied brochures especially published for prospective teachers. Items in these publications fell into one of three categories: (1) attitude toward work, (2) teacher welfare and new teacher interest, and (3) descriptive statements about the school of professional interest (5).

Another survey of 75 schools in Pennsylvania indicated that recruitment selection practices were left to chance by many school districts and teachers were hired in many cases to meet immediate needs without thought of future classroom instruction. The vast majority of the schools in this study were in their infancy in the use of accepted recruitment and selection practices. Even though all of the districts studied realized the importance of filling every opening in their schools with an outstanding teacher, those practices of recruitment and selection which have proven satisfactory in government and industry were strikingly absent. The majority of the schools included in the study did not have written policies for recruitment and selection (6).

Several methods of recruitment. Carroll Lang (4) has reviewed several of the proven methods for teacher recruitment. The methods used by a district, he has said, depend on the philosophy of the district. Does it want good teachers, better than average teachers, or the best available?

1. Colleges and universities that train teachers are a constant source of new personnel with recent trainning, new ideas and fresh enthusiasm. Recently many colleges and universities have begun to offer intern programs for both teachers and administrators. A number of districts have found this intern program to be an important answer to teacher shortages. Such a program has served to prepare housewives to enter the profession for employment within the district.

2. The drop-in traffic, persons who decide on the specific area

in which they want to live and go there seeking employment, is a fruitful source of applicants, comments Lang. Many districts rely almost exclusively on this method of recruitment.

3. Many districts have successfully used the U.S. mail for correspondence that eventually leads to employment of new applicants.

4. Recently, due in large part to the increasing mobility of our society, the U.S. Employment Service has become increasingly active in all professional placement, including professional educators. Employers who use this service, however, should understand the nature and limitations of the service for recruiting teachers.

5. "Many school districts have found leads furnished by staff members to be one of the most effective methods of securing teachers.' Former teachers who experienced a good relationship in a district may also serve as an aid in recruiting particularly if they still reside in the district. The stage for this type of referral service may be set during the exit or terminal interview. This interview, frequently the teacher's last contact with the front office in the district, is apt to be long remembered. Make it a pleasant interview, an appropriate termination of a pleasant experience. If the teacher is leaving to marry or to have a child, she herself may well be a candidate for re-recruitment a few years hence. Conversely, a disgruntled former employee may do untold harm to a district as far as the recruiting program is concerned."

Conclusions and Implications

The nature and scope of teacher recruitment has changed dramatically since World War II. School systems which could once rely on the drop-in traffic exclusively for personnel needs have found an increasing need for active recruitment outside the school system. The shortage of qualified teachers, increasing teacher mobility, and growing competition for the best teachers are all factors which have accelerated this trend.

On the other hand, school district recruitment programs are in their infancy when compared with those of government and business. Many school districts rely heavily on the local drop-in traffic, they tend to hire teachers from candidates currently available to fill specific positions with little though to future needs or patterns of development.

--Sam P. Sentelle

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TEACHER EVALUATION METHODS

Despite over a half century of study very little has been achieved in the area of teacher evaluation. Well known writers in this field admit the slow progress. Much of the difficulty appears to arise from an inadequate definition of the problem (17). Stated briefly, the question is this: What is meant by teacher competence? The following section deals with this question in some detail by investigating some theories of evaluation and several devices for the measurement of teacher effectiveness. The research reported in this section is by no means in full agreement about methods and techniques for evaluation.

Questions

1. What are the best standards for evaluation?

2. Is student evaluation acceptable?

3. What is logically involved in the act of evaluation?

4. What is the purpose of teacher evaluation?

5. Is there any difference in the way administrators rate teachers with certificates and those who hold temporary certificates?

6. Are there ways to predict the effectiveness of teachers?

Review of Studies

Approaches to evaluation. The problem of evaluating teaching performance has received much attention in the literature, but there is no widespread agreement as to what makes up standards for evaluation. Reagan (12) has conducted a study to clarify some of the problems with teacher evaluation. His study was also concerned with identifying some directions for development of evaluation. Evaluation should begin with the school administrators and board members, the study said, before evaluation of the individual teacher is attempted.

Student evaluation of teachers has been explored by Hall (7). The study utilized Ohio State University student nominations of best and worst teachers ever experienced. Hall felt that former students had a better perspective from which to judge. The first part of this investigation included classification of teacher characteristics and noticeable teacher effects. A second part involved a study of three instruments given to eleven teachers that were identified as "the best teachers" and nine of the most often named "worst teachers." It was found that the effects of best and worst teachers most frequently mentioned were in the area of motivation. The characteristic of best teachers appearing most often was individual interest in students, while the most often mentioned characteristic of worst teachers was favoritism. This study found that students agree on specific teachers as being the best and worst ever experienced. The danger in asking students to evaluate teachers is much less when the teachers and students have known each other for a long period of time.

Another approach to evaluation has been investigated by Yildirim (17). This study sought to establish the underlying logic of evaluation and then to work out, in accordance with that logic, an operational model. Yildirim asks this question: What is logically involved in the act of evaluation? First, the structure of a value judgment such as "this teacher is competent" was eliminated because standards as well as evidence per teachers was involved. Secondly, the nature of disagreements in evaluation was made clear. Disagreements were related to the importance of the standards for evaluation, the presence of evidence, and the soundness of reasoning involved. Thirdly, it was found that the justification of a value judgment can rightly be construed in terms of logic or verification depending on observation alone. What are some other ways used to evaluate teachers?

Evaluation programs in Maryland. The current status of evaluation programs in 24 county school systems in Maryland is revealed in a study by Ellinger (3). He found that probationary teachers are evaluated in 68.8 percent of the schools, continuing teachers are evaluated in 50 percent of the schools, principals are evaluated 37.5 percent of the time and assistant principals are evaluated in 18.3 percent of the schools. In the evaluation, those criteria appearing for evaluation were: (1) "accept the responsibility for professional growth through reading, college courses, and inservice education, (2) appearance of the classroom, (3) pupil-teacher rapport, (4) knowledge of subject matter, (5) long-range and daily planning, and (6) uses a variety of teaching methods."

Teacher attitudes toward evaluation. There is general agreement that the purpose of teacher evaluation is to improve the educational community. What is the general attitude of teachers toward evaluation? Wedel (16) has investigated the perceptions and opinions of teachers toward the teacher evaluation program carried on in the Oklahoma City school system during the 1962-63 school year. He found that the elementary and secondary evaluated teachers were more affirmative toward the teacher evaluation program than elementary and secondary nonevaluated teachers. If this finding could be applied to all teachers, then the general impression is that teachers favor an evaluation. Observers generally believed the program was beneficial. However, one probable error in evaluation has been pointed out by Garrison (4) who warns against making global interpretations of observed practices.

Administrator ratings. An evaluation of professionally certified and provisionally certified teachers has been conducted by Gerlock (5). Subjects for this study consisted of all white secondary school (grades 7-12) teachers in Florida, certificated and teaching in either general science, social studies, mathematics, or English, who completed their first year of teaching during the 1960-61 academic term. The purpose of the study was to determine if there was any real difference in the way administrations rate the two types of teachers in the areas of (1) personal qualifications, (2) skills in teaching, (3) relationships with others, (4) professional ethics and performance, and (5) moral and social ethics and performance. He found no noticeable difference in items (1), (3), and (4). On the other hand, there was a difference on skills in teaching and moral and social ethics and performance. This study suggests that professional preparation pays off in teaching skills.

A study concerned with the evaluation of teachers by their principals has been completed by Hain and Smith (6). The investigators recommended (1) a reduction of supervisor-teacher ratio, (2) conference after observation, (3) availability to teachers of the principal's written report, (4) joint supervisor-teacher development of standards and procedures of supervision and evaluation, and (6) periodical review and revision of the standards and procedures.

Test performance and academic achievement. An interesting study dealing with teacher effectiveness was conducted by Thacker (15). He was concerned with the ability to predict the quality of teaching from the National Teacher Examination, academic average, and supervisors of teacher preparation programs ratings. He found that none of these means were efficient in predicting the quality of teaching performance. Thacker found, however, that race, sex, type of degree, and level of school in which the teacher prepares for employment do have a bearing on test performance and academic achievement.

Hankins (8) has also revealed some findings pertaining to college grade point average, age, teaching experience, and school from which the teachers graduated regarding teaching effectiveness. He found in an investigation of the Greene County, Tennessee School System that the mean grade point average of most of the teachers termed effective was slightly higher than those with lower effectiveness ratings. No other important differences were found in the study.

Total staffing pattern related to effectiveness. A study by Sedlak (14) has shown that the total staffing pattern predicts school quality better than any single staff measure. There is evidence also of state influence on educational quality in the districts through the effective use of state support funds.

Combinations of techniques. At this point the literature reviewed has dealt with student opinion rating, administrative opinion rating, the National Teacher Examination, and teacher opinion rating. A study by Rooks (13) of 58 teachers in public secondary schools of Lynchburg, Virginia has revealed that when more than two of the above techniques are used there is a high degree of agreement. Therefore, before a decision is made on the effectiveness of potential of teacher several devices should be used in assessment.

A state-by-state summary of teacher evaluation has been presented by Mcphail (10). States that have attempted to evaluate teachers by ways other than degree gained and experience include (1) South Carolina which used the National Teacher Examination, and (2) New York with merit promotional instruments; (3) Delaware has provided a salary differential supplement for superior teachers; (4) Tennessee has provided a salary differential supplement for superior teachers; (5) National Teacher Examination scores for sixth and seventh year certificates were used in Georgia; (6) A series of experimental programs in teacher evaluation were underway in North Carolina; (7) Florida provided career increment awards and NTE scores; (8) Utah supplemented teacher salaries twenty dollars for each distribution unit applied for salary differential.

Conclusions and Implications

What is a sound theory for evaluation? According to the literature, an adequate evaluative theory recognizes levels of teaching as well as a division of responsibility, at each level, between the total organization and the persons that work in the school systems. If one is to look specifically at the levels of teaching, then a suggested method for evaluating teaching is student opinion in that level. Over a long period of time teacher evaluation by students has been considered a good approach to assessment of the worth of teaching.

A different approach to the problem of evaluation has been suggested by Yildirim (17) which involves an index competence. A structure for comparison is set up in order to construct this index. One part of the sturcture includes standards of what is expected of the teacher, and the second component is made up of performance measures representing what is actually observed. When these two sets of indicators are compared, the extent to which the teacher deviates from the "ideal type" is indicated in a percent. The method also depends on value judgments, and it was concluded that sound standards for evaluation result from human values where all the facts are present. Regardless of the technique used to evaluate, the main purpose of the teacher evaluation program should be to develop more effective teaching.

Granting of tenure and identification of professional leadership will be a natural by-product of good teaching. Teaching and administrative staffs should cooperate to develop acceptable concepts of effective teaching and professional leadership based on school system objectives. Standards, procedures, and techniques should be cooperatively developed to evaluate all professional services (3). Regardless of who does the evaluation, all personnel should receive a written record of each evaluation and be informed of the procedures to be followed if a grievance results. Furthermore, the entire professional staff should constantly review the accepted concept of effective teaching in relation to our changing society. It is the duty of school administrations to emphasize the establishment and maintenance of teacher evaluation. Research shows that more than one device is necessary for measuring teacher effectiveness. A "one-shot" evaluation of a teacher is not worthwhile. Three or more methods of evaluation is suggested before any decision is to be made.

--C. Kenneth Tanner

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TEACHER SELECTION PRACTICES: SUMMARY OF A CONFERENCE

The following paper is a summary of a report of a two-day conference on teacher selection methods. Thirteen position papers were included in the report, and the conference was attended by 45 experts in the field. Harry B. Gilbert and Gerhard Lang directed the conference which was jointly sponsored by the New York City Board of Education and the United States Office of Education.

Questions

This summary concentrated on aspects of the conference report which pertained especially to the following questions:

1. What teacher selection techniques have been used in some of the large urban school systems?

2. What emphasis has been placed on specific selection techniques such as interviews, professional references, and academic records in evaluating prospective teachers?

3. When are contract offers made?

4. How much time does the selection process usually take? How much time elapses between contact with the school district and the contact offer to a prospective teacher?

Review of Study

A survey has been made of teacher selection techniques in 320 large school systems (those systems which had at least 12,000 pupils), with respect to 15 specific areas of selection policy and procedure. Only about 25 percent of the respondents, the survey indicated, prepared job descriptions for teaching vacancies, and only 5 percent used a specific job description form. Less than 13 percent of the school systems gave examinations as part of their selection process. Physical examinations were required by about 60 percent of the school systems. All large school systems interviewed candidates. About 30 percent of the systems almost never or only occasionally trained their interviewers. While the time allotted to the interview ranged from 10 minutes to over one hour, the majority of school systems (55 percent) devoted between 20 to 30 minutes to their interviews. In this short time interval, interviewers were expected to assess up to 13 characteristics of the candidates, such as ability in the subject matter that the candidate proposed to teach, logical thinking, attitudes toward his work, potentiality for professional growth, personal appearance, and philosophy of education. One could well question the validity as well as the reliability of the interview conducted by the typical large public school system. References were almost universally requested from former employers and college professors. Surprisingly, however, 25 percent of the school systems asked for testimonials from friends of the candidate, a rather questionable procedure.

About 60 percent of the school systems did not observe candidates in an actual teaching situation. Only 20 percent of the systems tended to make one observation, and 6 percent apparently made two observations. Despite the concern about attracting people to enter a teaching career and the considerable investment in the selection process, large school systems tended to notify candidates rather late of their appointments. May seemed to be the month in which most school systems made such notification. Moreover, the larger the school system, the greater the tendency to notify candidates later. One can only conjecture as to how many candidates have been lost because of the lateness of their notification.

Analysis of data left a strong impression, reinforced by visits to representative industrial concerns, that compared to generally accepted practices used in industry to select personnel who are at a professional level similar to that of teachers, teacher selection practices in large public school systems appear to be, by and large, inadequate and unsophisticated. It seems that more and better efforts are expended to select first or second level supervisors than teachers for our large public school systems.

New York area school systems compared. School systems clustered around New York City and which were members of the Metropolitan School Study Council Systems (MSSC) were compared with a sample of large public school systems (LPSS): two of the MSSC systems were in Connecticut, 22 in New Jersey, and 38 in New York. On an average, they spent about two-thirds more per pupil than the large public school systems. Their median size was approximately 150 teachers and they had about 51 teachers per thousand pupils as opposed to 38 teachers per thousand pupils for the LPSS. Both groups of systems used the interview as the prime selection device. The MSCC systems made a greater effort than the LPSS group in extending the radius of search for candidates. They made twice as great an effort as the LPSS in the search for candidates beyond a 500 mile radius and somewhat more than twice the effort beyond a 1000 mile radius. MSSC systems exerted proportionately three and one-half times the effort to make at least one classroom observation of a candidate. Ninety-two percent of the MSCC systems telephoned the recommender of a candidate as contrasted with 66 percent of the LPSS.

The MSSC systems attempted to improve the reliability of their interviews by the primary use of a committee of interviewers. There had been enough research to indicate that a decision based on a concensus of the committee was more effective than one individual making the decision. As compared with the LPSS, proportionally almost twice as many MSSC systems employed the committee approach in the selection of candidates. When the MSSC systems did employ a committee, they involved the principal four times as frequently and the superintendent of schools five times as readily as the LPSS. This seemed to be a function of smallness of size. Forty-five percent of the MSSC systems, as opposed to 23 percent of the LPSS, notified candidates of their selection by the end of April.

On the other hand, the small school systems were less likely to have interviewers trained in the conduct of the interviews. Some 45 percent of them trained interviewers, as contrasted with 64 percent of the large school systems. As opposed to the LPSS, check lists, aids to interview blanks, were very much the exception rather than the rule in the MSSC systems. The MSSC systems made roughly one-sixth the use that LPSS made of data processing systems in the selection process. Very likely, the advantages inherent in smallness of size, coupled with the comparatively high expenditure level per pupil, were the factors which accounted for the superiority of MSSC school systems over large school systems with respect to the selection practices cited. A small system with a high expenditure level per pupil would be in a better position to provide a greater proportion of administrative time to the selection process. Even in the LPSS study it was found that there were certain advantages of the smaller of the larger systems. Again, smallness in size, coupled with a very high expenditure level per pupil, increased the chances for effective teacher selection.

Teacher selection in Los Angeles. A relatively new recruitment program that was added in the Los Angeles schools was recruitment in Europe. It was found that there were approximately 700 teachers returning each year from the schools for armed services dependents. Many of these had separated from the school systems in which they taught before they went to Europe. Through an arrangement with the University of Southern California, the Los Angeles City Schools interviewed in Europe for recruits for their program.

Los Angeles recruitment officers went just as far as possible toward a contract offer at the time of interview. Personal qualifications were always appraised and, if all the college records were available, an offer of a contract would usually be made at that time. On local campuses, where the records were complete for purposes of the local system, the contracts were not only offered, but the candidates, if they accepted, talked immediately with Assignment Administrators regarding the schools in Los Angeles where they would teach. Phase One, the recruitment, was a reaching out, the searching for teachers. Phase Two was the interview, drawing them into the school system if they were evaluated as being qualified for one year of service, the initial employment.

Attrition as a means of selection. The next phase was a tryout year. This probationary period in the Los Angeles schools was extremely important and the attrition factor was emphasized. With the kind of initial appraisal required, there was going to be a definite percentage of new teachers who would not succeed. They were encouraged to resign and many did resign from the school system. During this tryout year, the new teacher must prove himself and prepare for a formal examination. All elementary teacher candidates have been required to pass an English Usage Test in order to continue on to other phases of the examination. An objective test, covering basic subject matter areas, methods, techniques, and philosophy, had a weight of 30 percent. An evaluation of training and experience by a committee had a weight of 40 percent. Personal characteristics were evaluated by a second committee. This constituted, in effect, a dual system of selection: an initial selection and then a formal screening during the tryout year. In the past, a number of years ago, Los Angeles had just the formal examination system. This method failed to produce enough people to staff the schools.

Selection in Cincinnati. Normally, the Cincinnati school system processed from 1,500 to 1,800 applications annually. The number of vacancies usually totaled about 600 a year (500 for the September opening of school and 100 during the school year). Thus, about one-third are employed and two-thirds are rejected through the selection procedures used. The three selection factors used were academic record, professional references, and oral interview. Academic record was judged by analyzing the transcript of credits with particular emphasis upon the student teaching record. The grade point average was used as the significant measure of academic proficiency. Professional references, usually five in number, were used as the second selection criterion. Recognizing the unreliability of general recommendations, the references were required on forms provided by the school system so that they could be scored. This permitted better comparisons among candidates. Care was exercised to make sure that references were provided by those who had had direct supervisory contact with the applicant and presumably were in a position to make relevant judgements as to the competency of the candidate. The third selection criterion was the oral interview. Normally, it was a group interview and was conducted whenever possible at Board of Education headquarters. A gratifying number of applicants were able to come to Cincinnati for the oral interview, even though expense money could not be provided. About 50 percent of all people employed came from outside Ohio, which represented a considerable load of interviews. Most of these out-of-town candidates were interviewed on Saturday by teams organized by the personnel division. The three selection criteria were weighted. Academic record counted 30 percent; professional references, 20 percent; and the oral interview counted 50 percent.

Selection in Detroit. The selection of teachers for the Detroit Public Schools has been a continuous process involving the services of staff members from the schools, the Division for Improvement of Instruction, and the Personnel Division. As a final step in the selection process, a meeting was scheduled with a personnel committee, usually consisting of a teacher and supervisor from the subject field, a principal, an assistant principal or a consultant, a school social worker or a member of the staff of the psychological clinic, and a chairman from the Personnel Division. The selection committee reviewed the college transcripts and recommendation folders, ratings, and test results. After the personal interview with the candidate, each member of the committee cast a secret, independent ballot rendering a judgement of the candidate. All candidates were notified of the results in writing.

Conclusions and Implications

In large schools systems that presumed to be using selection, screening was actually what was being done. Professional teacher selection techniques were rarely employed. In smaller, affluent school districts, hunch rejections and global perusals, frequently in actual observations, served as selection techniques. Many of the techniques which were used in teacher selection apparently were dictated more by expediency than by reasoned and knowledgeable considerations of what are the best selection procedures.

Teacher selection appeared to be based mainly on academic record, interview, recommendations, and present performance. Conditional selection was used in many systems where teachers were offered a position and then evaluated as they worked on the job.

Many personnel officers were not empowered to make contract offers and large school systems tended to notify candidates of appointments at late dates. The larger the system, the greater the tendency to notify candidates late.

--Sam P. Sentelle

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LETTERS OF RECOMMENDATION IN TEACHER SELECTION

Teacher selection is usually based upon academic record, oral interview, and past performance. Of the three, past performance is probably the best predictor of future success. Yet many administrators give the measures of past performance least weight in the selection process. Perhaps part of the difficulty arises out of the highly subjective nature of these measures of past performance, especially the letters of recommendation.

Questions

1. Can letters of recommendation be reliable indicators of past performance and future success?

2. How can letters of recommendation be evaluated? What sources are more reliable? Are there clues to poor performance in letters of high recommendation?

3. What advantages do confidential letters of recommendation have over letters which are not confidential? Are confidential letters better predictors of teacher success than letters which are not confidential?

Review of Studies

Letters of recommendation and teaching success. Crombe (2) studied letters of recommendation as they related to subsequent teaching success. Data were collected from a single suburban public school system. Cooperating principals selected the top one-fifth of teachers, those judged most successful, and the bottom fifth or those judged least successful from among the total number supervised over an eight-year period. Twenty-five of the teachers rated most successful and 25 of those rated least successful were chosen by random sampling from the two groups selected by the principals. The letters of recommendation from these 50 teachers were then submitted to five independent judges for rating.

The principals who selected the initial pools of most and least successful teachers had based their decisions on classroom management, teaching skill and understanding of youth, the study found. The judges in rating the letters of recommendation based their decisions on sources, or writers of letters, and positive and negative comments in the letters.

The results of the investigation indicated that a relationship existed between letters of recommendation and teaching success. Letters rated low as recommendations related to a significant extent to poor performance. Letters rated high related to a considerable degree to successful teaching performance. In certain restrictive situations, the study indicated that cues of possible poor performance existed in letters of high recommendation, and if a personnel administrator could discover them, he could likely avoid hiring poor performing teachers. Examples of such cues were some of the following statements: "Contact me if more information is desired," and "the candidate is aware of his problem." A structured form listing specific criteria which are rated on a scale, the study found, was more helpful than traditional letters of recommendation.

A pattern of phrases that indicated endorsement and lack of endorsement was found to exist in the letters. Examples of endorsement phrases were: "Would like to hire her," "excellent lesson plans," and "will be a superior teacher." Examples of lack of endorsement phrases were: "Believe he will improve," and "reluctant to work to capacity."

No great difference was found by the investigation between the forecasting of letters of recommendation of males as compared with letters of females. There was some considerable difference, however, in the forecasting accuracy of letters of recommendation of elementary teachers and those of secondary teachers. Letters of recommendation of secondary teachers were considerably more accurate in their forecasts than for elementary teachers.

There were slightly more letters of recommendation per teacher for most successful teachers than for least successful teachers. Administrators predicted the degree of teaching success correctly at a higher percentage than the other sources of letters of recommendation. Sponsor teachers were second and college professors were last. All sources combined predicted correctly 56 percent of the time.

Should letters of recommendation be confidential? Burns (1) completed a study in 1968 to determine whether confidential recommendations on prospective teachers were better as sources of information than recommendations which were not confidential in nature. One thousand letters of recommendation were collected from the files of first-year teachers at Humboldt State, Hayward State, and Long Beach State College in California. Of these thousand letters, 509 were confidential and the remainder were not confidential. A panel of judges selected from school administrators throughout the state were sent 48 letters of recommendation selected at random from the thousand available for study. Half of the recommendations sent to each judge were confidential and half were not confidential. The judges were not informed of the conditions of distribution and they had no way of knowing whether the recommendations were confidential or not. The judges were asked to rate each recommendation and then the teacher based on the information presented in the recommendation.

An analysis of data in the Burns study indicated that there was essentially no difference between letters of recommendation which were confidential and those which were not confidential. The data did not show that nonconfidential recommendations had more superlative statements, fewer qualifying statements, or fewer actual descriptions of critical incidents than confidential recommendations. The judges did not find that nonconfidential ratings as a group were less effective than the confidential ratings in describing a person as a teacher.

Conclusions and Implications

Although research has been limited, studies on letters of recommendation have indicated that they could be reliable indicators of future teaching success. In certain restrictive situations, cues of possible poor performance have been found to exist even in letters of high recommendation. The findings of the Crombe study (2) suggested that a certain degree of skill is necessary in evaluation and effective use of letters of recommendation in the teacher selection process.

While there was little difference in predictive value of letters between men and women teachers, there was quite a difference between letters of elementary and secondary teachers. Letters for secondary teachers were more accurate in predicting teaching success than letters for elementary teachers. One possible explanation was the difference in teaching roles between the two groups. Secondary teachers have been more subject matter oriented than elementary teachers and the latter group have been more concerned with personal interactions with their students. This personal interaction is a factor which can vary greatly from one teaching situation to another. Subject matter competence, on the other hand, is relatively stable.

There appeared to be little difference between confidential letters of recommendation and those which were not confidential. The two types of letters have been judged as roughly equivalent in terms of content and predictive value. These conclusions imply that letters of recommendation might just as well be made available to teachers, that such letters properly utilized could be valuable for self-evaluation and guidance purposes.

--Sam P. Sentelle

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SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY CONFLICT

Boards of education represent both teachers and the general public. They have an interest in responding to the desires of the public regarding their schools while at the same time they seek to protect teachers from public pressures. Boards must make accommodation for conflicting points of view. For example, when pressed by the public to keep taxes low, at the same time they are urged by educators to adopt new programs which will increase costs. When a segment of the public takes issue with a decision by the board of education or an administrator in the system, conflict ensues. How this happens, what issues are involved, and how they are resolved is the subject of this report.

Questions

1. What issues are involved in cases where schools and communities are in disagreement?

2. Do communities differ in ability to manage conflict?

3. What characteristics are associated with the ability to manage conflict?

4. What grievances do parents hold against the schools?

5. Is conflict healthy or unhealthy for schools?

Review of Studies

Disagreements between the public and school authorities are not uncommon, yet very little systematic research has been undertaken in this area. Much of the work done has used a case study method, with the result that findings may not be applicable to different situations.

Conflict in New York City. A type of conflict which has appeared recently is the struggle by minority groups to gain control over schools in the ghetto neighborhoods of large cities. Goldberg's description of some of the issues involved in the controversy over Intermediate School 201 in New York City (6) is an excellent review of some of the issues involved. Negro and Puerto Rican parents in the community served by Intermediate School 201 argued that because they lacked power and prestige accorded white middle-class parents, they had no influence over decisions relating to the education of their children. They proposed that a community council of residents of the school community be created, and that it have the power to hire and fire teachers and administrators. There was no inclination on the part of the board of education to grant this absolute authority to such a group. Goldberg comments that the board was prepared to accept a boycott at Intermediate 201 in preference to a city-wide strike of teachers which they expected to occur had the parent's request been granted.

Teachers in New York City have opposed decentralization of the schools of the city, even though critics feel that such a plan is necessary if the schools are to be responsive to the needs of the communities they serve (5). For one thing, the teachers prefer to bargain with a single centralized authority rather than with individual districts scattered throughout the city. Probably even more important is the fear on the part of teachers that their careers would be in jeopardy if community councils were given the power to hire and fire teachers.

Parents in the New York neighborhood felt that the schools were not held accountable for their performance, that no judgment was forthcoming if a school failed to do a satisfactory job of educating youngsters. To introduce accountability, the parents proposed to develop objective means of evaluation by which teachers could be assessed and, if necessary, replaced. Teachers rejected the suggestion that their performance be judged by laymen; in fact, teachers were generally opposed to any kind of plan in which their performance was rated, even where the evaluation would have been performed by other professionals.

The controversy between parents and educators in New York City is unique in that the parents sought to gain absolute authority over the operation of schools in their neighborhoods. However, many of the issues in dispute were basically the same ones which appeared in other settings. The question of professional autonomy versus lay control of public education is one, for example, which has appeared frequently in disputes between the public and educators.

Conflict in Kenosha, Wisconsin. When the National Education Association is invited by a local affiliate to investigate conditions in a community, it organizes a team of educators to study the situation and publish a report. One such study was undertaken in Kenosha, Wisconsin in 1966 (1). In that city the board of education and city council had been engaged in a power struggle over a period of several years. The city council had on occasions eliminated or delayed approval on funds for the school budget, and the board of education had responded by cutting back programs popular with the public. This resulted in pressure on the city council to reinstate the school funds. The council had not been successful in persuading the schools to submit a detailed budget and accused the schools of submitting padded budget figures. The school board argued that the council demands to see detailed budget figures was an intrusion into the board's realm of authority.

In early 1966 the National Education Association and its state affiliate organized a joint study committee composed of seven educators to investigate the Kenosha situation. The committee found that Kenosha ranked high among cities of comparable size in per capita expenditures for education and discovered no evidence that budget cuts imposed by city council had damaged the educational program of the city. Both the city council and the board of education were rebuked for failure to meet their responsibilities. It suggested that providing city council with the detailed budget figures as requested would not be a violation of the board's autonomy. The committee said that an adequate expenditure budget request should include a statement of the general objectives of the school system for the year, a description of each program in which a request was made for increased expenditures and a justification of such increases along with a statement of the funds needed to meet the needs of each of the programs to be operated by the board of education for the year.

Situations where conflict is likely. Conflict is more likely to occur where two parties hold roughly equal shares of power. Where the power is distributed in such a way that one party has slight chance of winning in a show-down, he will usually avoid open conflict. Professional education groups have recognized this fact recently and have begun to take actions which would increase the share of power they hold in situations where there is a dispute between the schools and a community. For example, organized action by teachers represents a recognition of the power to be gained by unified action. Another way by which a professional group can enhance its power in a local dispute is by calling in state or national groups to support its case. This is usually done prior to invoking sanctions or calling a strike. The greater prestige and resources of the state and national bodies and the implicit threat to community leaders concerned with national exposure all strengthen the hand of the educational group.

Much of the research into conflict between social groups involves the concept of consensus or agreement. An agency or organization such as a board of education operates in a climate of expectations. That is, the people in a community hold certain beliefs about how a board of education should operate and what positions it should take on critical issues. In turn, the expectations an individual holds are influenced in large measure by his associations and status. Theoretically, conflict is less likely to occur where the various groups in a community are in agreement both within and among themselves in expectations they hold for the board of education.

Lipham and his colleagues (10) found that in the twelve Wisconsin school districts they studied, it was in fact true that extent of controversy in a community was related to the level of consensus on the role of the school board. They found that parents whose children attended private or parochial schools tended to hold different expectations for the board of education than did parents whose children were in the public schools.

Four groups were studied in the Lipham research. They were citizens, public officials, teachers, and school board members. Citizens held the highest degree of consensus regarding school board role, and surprisingly school board members showed the least agreement. When the groups were asked to judge the importance of the school board in making various kinds of decisions, the board members themselves again attached less importance to the school board than did the other three groups. School board members attributed to the superintendent of schools most of the responsibilities which citizens, teachers, and public officials assigned to the board of education. These findings suggest that school board members see themselves as wielding less authority than other community groups believe that they have and suggest further that board members do not agree among themselves about what their proper role should be.

Types of conflict between school and community. Minar (11) sought to answer the question why some communities exhibit lower levels of conflict than other communities. He theorized that the reason might be that low-conflict communities are better able to manage conflict because of the presence in the community of persons with a high level of skill in organization, personal communications, and human relations. He reasoned that these skills would be more likely to exist in a group of well-educated and well-to-do persons. Subsequent investigation confirmed the suggestion that communities in which more people are well-educated and hold high status have less conflict and also exhibit more skill in conflict management.

Snow (14) investigated the implications of Minar's findings for the role of the superintendent. Four Illinois suburban communities were studied, and the object of his research was to identify factors which affect superintendents' roles.

Probably the most common type of conflict between school and community involves parents who hold specific grievances regarding practices in a school attended by their children. Such disagreements often involve minor issues and problems. Frequently these never come to the attention of school authorities. Of those which do, probably most are resolved quickly. Despite the frequent occurrence of such conflict, however, there has been relatively little systematic research into this phenomenon. Jennings' (8) study in this area is one of the few in the literature. A national sample of parents with children in public and private schools was asked whether their children had ever been told things in any of their classes with which the parent disagreed, whether anything had happened to their child at school within the past two or three years which upset the parent.

Some interesting findings emerged from this study. One finding was that parental grievances were not distributed equally among schools. Some schools received more than their share of parental complaints while others had none. It was not clear whether the reason for this difference was that some schools actually give parents more reason for complaining or that some groups of parents are simply more prone to complain. Jennings found no relationship between participation in PTA and frequency of grievance-holding parents.

The nature of the complaints held by the parents was also investigated. Most frequently complaints about something the child was taught involved the areas of morals and religion or politics. Parents who complained about moral or religious teaching were more liekly to hold fundamentalist religious orientations, and parents who complained about teaching in the area of politics were more likely to be interested in governmental affairs. Less than half of the parents who reported holding grievances with the school made any attempt to alleviate the conditions which gave rise to their complaints.

School consolidation has been the source of much of the conflict between school authorities and the public, and it continues to be an issue of contention despite general agreement that larger schools are more efficient and able to offer better educational programs. Jonassen (9) studied conflict over school consolidation in a Norweigian community. He concluded that opposition to consolidation grew out of two basic personality needs of the people--self-esteem and self-orientation. His findings suggest that to the residents of small communities the removal of a school suggests loss of identity and the passing of a familiar and pleasant way of life. Rural residents, he believes, are fearful of the urbanized society, which they perceive as threatening their value systems and self-esteem. Despite the attempt by opponents of consolidation to phrase their arguments in rational, economic terms, Jonassen concluded that the real source of their opposition was emotional rather than rational.

Communities which experience rapid growth in population frequently encounter strains which emerge as conflicts between various groups in the community. Goldhammer and Farner (7) investigated a situation in Oregon in which rapid growth of a metropolitan area had caused spillover into an adjacent rural county. The strains created by this rapid growth, along with conflicts between the old and new residents of the county raised problems for the school system which required several years to resolve.

Members of boards of education are in a position in which they are subject to conflicting cross-pressures which they must somehow resolve. The public, for example, expects the board to practice economy in order to keep taxes low, while the superintendent pushes for new programs which increase educational costs. The course of action adopted by a particular board on any one issue is dependent on a number of factors. The board's vulnerability is one such factor. Dumond (4) analyzed the effects of public pressure on decisions of boards of education in school districts in Arizona. He concluded that public pressure does influence the decisions which are made by boards of education, that recent curricular revisions in the Arizona schools were due in part to public pressure, and that there appeared to be a growing feeling on the part of citizens that school costs are too high. The response by school authorities to public pressure was found to be due, at least in part, to the authorities' perception of the legitimacy of the demands. Lack of communication between the school and community appeared to result in greater community pressure.

Not much is known about the effects of controversy on the public schools. Generally educators take a position similar to that held by Nussel (13) that conflict is unhealthy for education, while admitting that it may be useful in other settings in democratic societies. Much study remains to be done regarding the kinds of conflict between school and community and the effects of such conflict on the educational program.

Conclusions and Implications

The effort by community groups to secure greater control over neighborhood schools in urban areas promises to continue to produce conflict between school authorities and teachers on the one hand and the public on the other. It seems unlikely that boards of education will grant the absolute authority that some community groups are seeking, but it is likely that there will be movement in the direction of greater decentralization in many of the large cities.

Four findings have emerged from the research into role expectations for board members which appear to have important implications. (1) There is likely to be less conflict in communities where the people hold similar expectations of the board of education. (2) Board members show a very low level of agreement among themselves as to what should be expected of them. (3) Board members see themselves as wielding less authority than the public believes them to have. (4) Communities which possess rich human resources are better able to manage conflict when it occurs and thus experience less disruption from it. It appears that a board of education might be able to take the lead in educating the public as to the board's role and authority. Such an educative process might reduce the disparities in expectations which appear to produce conflict between school and community. It appears also that it might be fruitful for boards of education and other community agencies to develop training programs to help people acquire the skills which are useful in resolving conflict.

Rapid population growth appears to produce strains in a community which often erupt into conflict involving the schools. This fact might serve to forewarn boards of education in such areas of the need for careful and imaginative planning for future needs and of the need to involve the citizens of the community to as great an extent as possible in the board's decisions.

--John T. Seyfarth

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POWER STRUCTURE RELATION TO SCHOOL BOARDS

The desire for personal power, to be able to influence the behavior of others, seems to be an inherent individual characteristic, and one that gains in intensity when two or more persons work together for a common cause. When individuals having similar desires group together to consolidate their strength toward common purposes a power structure is formed. A power structure may be a beneficial force of strength to a school board, or it may be the causation of problems at the expense of time and energy on the part of the board, with resulting negative values toward the education of students.

Questions

Published research results will be analyzed to learn of their contributions in seeking solutions to these perplexing questions faced by school boards:

1. Is the school board itself a viable power structure?

2. Are there formal and informal groups of people in the community operating as power structures?

3. Are there types of "critical situations" which develop in the school system which give rise to the forming of power structures?

4. How can power structures be identified?

5. What are the values to the school board in knowing of the power structures which may be operative in their community?

Review of Studies

A number of research studies have been reviewed to determine factors in the community which affect the school board in making decisions about educational matters. Researchers recognize that the school system is only one of many social sub-systems operating in a community and that a variety of socioeconomic factors, beliefs, values, and events affect the interactions of community social sub-systems as decisions are raised and resolved concerning education within the school district (4).

Regardless of how the particular sub-systems, or leaders within the community, or the school districts administration feel, react or exert influence and pressure for resolving issues and problems in educational matters of the school district, the final decision is legally required of the school board. This final decision results in adoption of a policy which then becomes mandatory for the school district superintendent to apply and enforce until subsequent action is taken by the board.

Early research on power structures. The first analytic study of power structure was made by Hunter in 1953 (3). His initial inquiry of such forces of community power in a city having more than 500,000 persons revealed that about 40 persons were at the top of a pyramid in making decisions that affected the population of the entire community. Hunter referred to this type of unity as the informal monolithic power structure which gained its unanimity "by common interests, mutual obligations, money, habit, delegated responsibilities, and in some instances by coercion and force."

Research studies made since the Hunter investigation reveal that each community has its own peculiar form of power structure and that different techniques may be used to determine these structures as they affect educational policies. Two techniques for viewing the community power structures seem to have been used predominantly: the reputational and the decision analysis techniques. To know these and to understand the process of application of these techniques, a brief description of each is presented.

Reputational technique for viewing power structure. The reputational technique was devised by Hunter (3) and has as its starting point that of asking selected persons, who have been identified as being in the center of community life, to nominate those citizens whom they consider to be the most important leaders in the community. A list of all persons nominated is then compiled and submitted to a cross-section of judges for the purpose of determining leadership rank among those individuals suggested to be community leaders.

Decision analysis technique. The decision analysis technique developed by Dahl (1) proposed using a segmented-decision analysis to determine the power structure in a community. In this process a number of decisions, within selected areas of interest in which decisions have been made, are analyzed to learn who in the community has been involved. In the New Haven study conducted by Dahl, decisions in three issue areas were analyzed to learn who in the community has been involved. In the New Haven study conducted by Dahl, decisions in three issue areas were analyzed: political party nomination, urban redevelopment, and public education. Representatives in each issue area were prevailed upon to identify the important decisions made in their area during recent years. To document decisions made in each area data were obtained from records, documents, newspapers, direct observations and interviews. Interviews with those persons identified to be involved in making decisions on the issues were conducted to determine patterns of such involvement.

To understand better the types of power structures which have been identified, the process used in such identification, and some of the results in knowing about power structures in the community a review of research in this sector of interest is presented.

Miller (9) utilized the reputational techniques to study community power structures as a means to predict possible outcomes of decision-making on educational issues in selected school districts in the state of Washington. The results of his inquiry demonstrated the importance of knowing the community power structure. Such knowledge is helpful in planning for school district projects requiring the voters approval and being able to predict the success of school projects.

Power structures in the Florida counties. Kimbrough (5) reported on results of study of the power structures in two counties with similar climatic conditions in Florida, one county had a low effort for the school district and the other was a high effort district. In the low effort county no one power structure made all the decisions though professionals helf the most power. Elected officials held higher status in this power structure than in the high effort county. The superintendent of schools held more power than did his counterpart in the high effort county.

In the county having the high effort for education, the leaders in economic positions held the most influence with business men being predominant in these economic groups. Kimbrough concluded that the success of any project proposed in the high effort county " . . . depended upon the extent to which it had the informal endorsement of leaders in the competitive power groups." (5)

Melko (8), using the same two counties as Kimbrough, described the operational assumptions of community leaders to determine if such leadership was more conservative or more liberal in the county exerting a high effort for the school district as compared to the county exerting a low effort. He used the Florida Scale of Civic Beliefs, a scale specially designed to measure civic liberalism and conservatism. His conclusions were that leaders, well known business and professional men holding important economic, political, and civic positions in their community in each county were conservative, but those in low financial effort county were significantly more conservative than those living in the county of high financial effort.

A Kentucky study. Shaffer (10) using both the reputational and decision analysis techniques, investigated the power structures in three high effort school districts in Kentucky. Each school district selected represented a small, medium, and large population in size.

The power that leaders held in school-community issues, their support-opposition, state influence, initial nomination as a leader, and personal subjective evaluations were all studied.

He discovered that leaders were identifiable according to their political beliefs, economic status, economic-political status and role, and according to specialist classification as a leader. Economic status leaders were prevalent in two counties, and an equal number of economic and politica leaders operated in the third county. On similar issues in each district no differences were detected among the types of leaders and their participation. Negro leaders identified in each district were low in number.

Northeastern United States. McCarty (6) studied the school leadership in 23 school districts in the Northeastern United States and the community power structure in each school district to determine relationships and the nature of the existing system of education. He discovered that the school board exhibited the same type of influence on the school as did the power structure in its community, and the superintendent's role was a direct function of both. Dominated boards turned to one member for decisions. Factional boards depended upon the majority for decision. Status congruent boards depended upon extensive discussion among themselves, and sanctioning boards depended upon the recommendations of the superintendents.

Spiess (11) restricted his research to that of analyzing the literature and research findings on power and influence as a means to find ways in which community power and influence study methods might be improved in applying to educational administration. He made several recommendations. First, in using the reputational method of studying power structure the assumption that a "power elite exists" should be avoided. Second, in daily routine activities the school administrator can analyze community leadership activities by noting such activities as reports in the mass media, by performing content analysis on public documents such as minutes, by utilizing information gained through contact with citizens in civic organizations and community activities, and through careful observation of trends emerging in the community and those citizens associated with such new developments. Third, the school administrator needs to be aware of the possibilities of community power structures, but he should use caution in becoming overly concerned with such structures.

A power structure model. McCarty and Ramsey (7) developed a conceptual model of twelve parts to study the social power structure and the school system. Community power structures were categorized in four types: dominated, factional, pluralistic, and inert. School boards were typed according to dominated, factional, status, congruent, and sanctioning. The superintendent's role was classified according to functionary, political-strategist, professional advisor, decision maker.

Results of their study revealed that a positive correlation existed between kinds of superintendent's role when related to types of power structures and school boards. To reduce the superintendent's vulnerability to short term demands originating with community power structures the superintendent should be given at least a three-year contract renewable annually, and the state department of education should assume responsibility for the management of schools at the local level.

Hickcox (2) used the conceptual model developed by McCarty and Ramsey in the study of relationships which might exist between community power structure, school boards, and the superintendent in 25 school districts located in the Northeastern area of the United States. His investigation revealed two types of relationships. In almost half the school districts, an equanimity existed between the three groups, that is the actions of the administrator were directly related to that of the board and to the power structure found in that school district. In one-fourth of the other districts relationships between the superintendent and the board were either high, or the superintendent was at variance with both the power structure and the board. In the other school districts studied no reportable relationships were definable.

A study by Johns and Kimbrough. In the most extensive research effort to date Johns and Kimbrough (4) studied the relationships of socio-economic factors, educational leadership patterns and elements of community power structures to local school fiscal policy in the four states of Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, and Illinois, involving 24 school districts. These researchers assumed that: the school system is one of many social sub-systems operating in each community; and numerous socio-economic factors, beliefs, values, and events affect the interactions of community social sub-systems which in turn affect community decision making for education.

The findings of this three and one-half year study revealed the following points. The greater the per capita wealth of the district, the higher the local effort is in proportion to ability. In seven of the districts studied major changes had been brought about during years just prior to the study, and of these changes economic leaders, by a wide majority over superintendents, were influential in bringing about such changes. Low effort districts tended to have noncompetitive (monopolistic) type power structures whereas power structures of high effort districts tended to be of the competitive (pluralistic) type. Superintendents in high effort districts were more politically active, spent more time and money in political activities, and there tended to be more "gladiators" and fewer "apathetics" than in monopolistic districts. In competitive districts board members served for shorter terms. The tenure of superintendents was shorter, and the value placed on education by the registered voters was higher than in noncompetitive districts. Leaders in political categories were predominant in competitive districts; whereas economic type leaders prevailed in larger numbers in the noncompetitive districts. The percent of leaders who were native born was much higher in the low effort district which tended to produce closed social systems.

Conclusions and Implications

Power structures differ in number, in influence, and in aspirations from one community to another. School boards can be a viable power structure in the community, but such viability depends upon a number of conditions found in the community. In school districts having a high financial effort boards tend to be status-congruent, that is they listen to leaders in the community, discuss issues and problems among themselves and with school administrators, then make decisions to establish educational policies.

There are many formal and informal groups of people in the community operating as power structures. Several power structures may exist at the same time in the same community, each seeking to promote and bring about a particular type of change in the school system. People who join together to form power structures tend to do so due to their political beliefs (party affiliations), religious beliefs (members of the same denomination), economic status (business owners and holders of high positions in industry), and professional classifications of education and employment. Power structures can be classified into dominated, factional, pluralistic, and inert.

There are types of "critical situations" which develop in the school system and in the community which give rise to power structures. In school related issues, critical situations exist when taxes are raised through a school millage election, when property reassessment is proposed, when teacher salary increases are needed, when there are school board elections, and when schools integrate students and faculties. When school districts provide a high financial effort more power structures emerge with political leaders being dominant, and the district is considered having competitive power structures. In this condition there is a shorter tenure for board members and also for the superintendent of schools. In districts that are low in financial effort for the school, fewer power structures operate and these tend to become inert until pertinent issues, problems, and projects are proposed. Then leaders emerge from the economic areas of the community.

Power structures in any community can be identified. Two major formal techniques have been used by researchers: the reputational and the decision analysis techniques. A third and informal one was also suggested primarily for use by the superintendent, but just as usable by board members, that is engaging in daily observation of reported activities and events in the community and identification of citizens involved in such activities. By identifying the power structures operative in the community, whether such structures be formal or informal, the board is in a better position to assess the probability of success of any endeavor it may propose to undertake. Particularly is this evident when the voters of the school district are called upon to approve increases in taxes for school improvement or when persons in the district are being elected to a board or board members are seeking reelection. Demands made by particular community power structures can be evaluated in relation to possible actions and reactions of other structures if pluralistic power structures are identified in the district. Capable superintendents find themselves in difficult positions between the board, which develops policies to govern the school system, and power structures in the community demanding immediate response to specific actions. The board can reduce this vulnerability to power structures demands for short term gains by assuring the superintendent tenure through a long term contract.

As school districts prosper financially and more services are required of the schools, more power structures develop to influence the board in making decisions in the acquiring and allocating of resources. The board can perform its service best to all citizens by knowing of the operation of power structures in the community, how they can be identified, and of the detrimental or enhancing forces that such structures can exert on the board as it deliberates and makes policies for the school district.

--Earl F. Hargett

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THE IMPACT OF COLLECTIVE NEGOTIATIONS UPON THE SCHOOLS

The increasing use of the process of collective negotiations between teachers and boards of education has created some uneasiness about the impact this process is having upon the schools. This is especially true in regard to decision making in school systems. Conflict over the right to control decisions affecting the schools have led to impasse situations, sometimes resulting in teacher strikes and the closing of schools. While research in this area cannot provide school board members with "tried and true" answers, it can provide some indication of what changes have occurred as a result of negotiations and suggest possible ways of approaching negotiations in the future.

Questions

1. What do teachers hope to gain through collective negotiations?

2. What aspects of school operations and decision making have been altered because of negotiation?

3. What factors influence the occurrence of impasses?

4. How may impasses be dealt with?

5. How should boards of education approach the process of negotiation?

Review of Studies

Love conducted a study to determine the extent of teacher participation in decision-making through collective negotiations (2). Data was collected through a questionnaire sent to 170 school districts and through interviews with school board members, administrators, and teachers in six school systems as well as the analysis of written negotiation agreements collected from a number of school systems. Love maintained that, in addition to pursuing collective negotiations as a means of obtaining better salaries and better working conditions, teachers also sought to use collective negotiations to "obtain meaningful participation in decision-making." Therefore, he attempted to contrast the extent to which teachers participated in decision-making in school systems which engaged in collective negotiation and the extent to which teachers were involved in decision-making in school systems which did not engage in collective negotiations.

The study found that collective negotiation does give teachers greater opportunity to participate in decision-making. This is especially true in large school systems where one teacher organization holds exclusive representation rights and where state law encourages the development of collective negotiation between teachers and school systems. Collective negotiations do serve to reduce somewhat the power of the school administration and the board of education. However, "administrators quickly learn to use the negotiation process to preserve areas of discretion and school boards retain their right to represent the public interest and to make all final decisions." (2)

The impact of collective negotiations has been much more important in deciding personnel policies than educational policies. The items most often considered for negotiation are: salary schedule, leave policies, class size, transfer policy, and teachers' supervisory duties. While decisions involving the content, materials, and techniques of education are almost never negotiated, non-negotiation decision processes are being created to give teachers greater voice in these decisions (2).

In a comprehensive study to determine the impact of collective negotiations on the schools, especially on the decision-making process, Perry and Wildman made case studies of the history of collective negotiations between teachers and boards of education in 22 communities (6). Collective negotiations in the districts studied had become a compromise process based upon the exercise of group power as the ultimate basis for decision-making. Many persons who had to operate under collective negotiation agreements claimed that the system did not permit the best approaches to solving problems or adapting to changing circumstances. Outside observers agreed and questioned whether politically and economically motivated short-run decisions could promote quality education in the long run. Wildman found little evidence that collective negotiations had reduced the freedom of boards of education to set basic policy or the discretion of administrators to implement policy, however, the potential exists for negotiation to bring about considerable changes in the power of school boards, administrators, and teacher organizations.

Collective negotiation has led school authorities to increase their efforts to convince the local community and the agencies which have physical authority over the schools of the need for additional resources. Some of these appeals have made reference to collective negotiations and the power of teachers to disrupt the school system. In some cases, teacher organizations have assisted in attempting to persuade the public to increase support of the schools. In other instances, they have not, either because they fear being bound by the results of such appeals or because they feel they may alienate the community. Larger school districts have succeeded in gaining additional funds from state governments to meet the physical demands brought about by negotiation agreements. Smaller districts have not succeeded in these efforts. Most districts have obtained local physical support, at least in the short run. In some cases, additional support was achieved for non-salary areas of the school budget. However, teachers were the major beneficiaries of increased support. The short-run increases in teachers' salaries brought about by negotiations have been met by shifting resources to education within levels of government and shifting resources to teachers' salaries within the local school budgets (6).

A study conducted at The Ohio State University centered on determining the current degree of collective activity among classroom teachers and the extent to which attitudes of teachers, school administrators, and school board members were in agreement about the role classroom teachers should play in decision-making within the school system. The attitudes of teachers, administrators, and board members in a single state were assessed by having them respond to an attitude inventory constructed by the researcher which related to areas of concern and negotiations. Items composing the instrument were taken from the literature in the field of collective negotiations as well as statements from college professors and practitioners (7).

While the concept of negotiation was accepted by teachers, administrators, and board members, there were degrees of differences among the three groups. Largest difference in attitude toward collective negotiation existed between teachers and school board members. The second largest difference was between teachers and school superintendents. Superintendents and members of boards of education had the greatest agreement of attitudes toward collective negotiations, especially upon the subjects that should be submitted for negotiation. Many superintendents were uncertain about what the procedures for negotiation should be and about the role they should play in the negotiating process (7).

A case study of the collective negotiation process between the Flint Board of Education and the Flint Education Association was undertaken to assess the impact of the Michigan Mandatory Collective Bargaining Law. The study covered the period from the passage of the law on July 23, 1965 through the first master teacher contract agreement on September 1, 1966. The study concluded that collective bargaining had intruded on the traditional decision-making authority of the board of education. The teacher contract finally agreed upon included binding arbitration which gave a third party a decision-making function over the board of education. A source of conflict between the board of education and the teachers organization which eventually led to a teacher strike was lack of communication between the board of education and the teacher organization. The teachers claimed that this lack of communication resulted because the board of education would not give them an opportunity to express their desires. The study recommended that the board of education and the teacher organization capitalize on such positive benefits of collective negotiations as clarification of policy, definition of teachers' rights and responsibilities, definition of the role of central office administration, and definition of the role of principals. The study also recommended that the board of education budget funds for research and for inservice activities in order that the board may secure a background in collective negotiations. The study strongly urged that boards of education negotiate for quality teaching in return for higher salaries (1).

The results of another Michigan study indicate the impact that collective negotiation can have on existing state laws concerned with educational matters. In relating the 1964 Michigan tenure law to the 1965 law granting compulsory bargaining rights to teachers, the study found a severe conflict between these two laws. The conflict resulted from the fact that individual contracts were required by law and that tenure rights were derived from individual contractual status. But in some cases teachers were withholding individual contracts until a master contract had been negotiated with the board of education. When these individual contracts were withheld past certain dates, then, according to the tenure law, teachers were in jeopardy of losing their their tenure rights. The study recommended that the courts and the state legislature take steps to reduce the conflict between these two laws (3).

Wildman used a survey questionnaire to gather information about teacher negotiations from a sample of 6,023 school systems in the United States which had enrollments of 1,200 or more. A 70 percent response was received with only five states (all in the South) responding below 50 percent. Results from this study indicated that local unions of the American Federation of Teachers seemed to be more willing to pursue negotiation procedures to the impasse stage than were affiliates of the National Education Association. Most impasses, however, occurred in districts where both organizations were active and were probably a result of their competition for membership. Fifty-five of the districts which responded to the questionnaire provided for the use of specific procedures in case of impasse. These procedures can be classified as providing for one of the following:

1. The use of a consultant or mediator whose duties are largely unspecified.

2. The use of a third party to make recommendations for settlement to the parties involved.

3. The use of a third party to make recommendations to the parties involved and to the general public.

4. The use of a third party to make recommendations to the parties involved and then to the public if the recommendations do not lead to settlement.

5. The use of a third party to make recommendations with the

power to refer the dispute to the state superintendent if the recommendations do not lead to settlement (9).

In the interaction between the teachers organizations and the school management, the superintendent had the primary responsibility for representing the schools in 60 percent of the districts sampled. In 15 percent of the districts, he shared this responsibility with the board of education. But in 25 percent of the districts, the superintendent was not involved at all in representing the school management. In districts where the board of education had not delegated authority to the superintendent to act on the request of teacher organizations, teachers seemed to focus their efforts on the board (9).

Perry reported on eight case studies of school districts in which impasses occurred in processes of negotiations. The districts included New York City with 45,000 teachers and seven other districts in various parts of the United States whose number of teachers ranged between 170 and 750. One similarity which seemed to exist in all of the districts was that teachers had not been effectively represented in the years immediately preceding the occurrence of the impasse. Perry concluded that teachers had overestimated the decision-making power which they could gain through negotiations. In some districts teachers seemed to believe that once negotiations were established, school boards could not refuse to accept teacher demands. Teachers felt that they could use collective negotiations to force, not only the school boards, but also the community-at-large to allow teachers to determine the needs of the school districts (5).

> While it was the nature and level of teacher expectations which gave rise to impasses, it was the nature of the boards of education's views of the meaning of collective bargaining which determined the form taken by conflict. Where a board had committed itself to collective bargaining, the impasse centered on economic issues. Where a board of education had not accepted collective bargaining, economic conflict was translated into conflict over control of the system and its long-run as well as short-run goals (5).

Conclusions and Implications

While the major concern of teachers in collective negotiation has been the improvement of salary and working conditions, they have also attempted to include a wide range of items in addition to these. This is especially true of local affiliates of the National Education Association (9). If school officials are to deal effectively with the movement toward collective negotiations, they must be aware that teachers want an increased voice in the decisions that affect them (8).

Robert Ohm maintains that the emergence of collective activity on the part of teachers and the conflicts that these activities have generated have been brought about by the teachers' desire for professionalization. One of the most important qualifications of a profession is that it be able to have control of decisions that are based upon professional knowledge. Where the schools are concerned, many of the decisions that should be based upon a technical knowledge of education are not made by the teachers who are the educational professionals, but rather by lay boards of education and by administrators who, in many cases, may be out of touch with the situations about which they are making decisions. The conflicts that are arising are really organizational conflicts brought about by the traditional way the school systems have been organized to function. These conflicts arise between those who hold the position of authority within the organizational structure and those who have the special training to carry out complex roles but do not hold authority positions (4).

Ohm also maintains that an increase in power and control by teachers does not necessarily mean a decrease in the power and control of administrators and boards of education. Such a view, he says, is based on the assumption that there is a limited amount of power available to the school system and that any power teachers come to possess consequently means a decrease in the power of the other elements of the school system. According to Ohm, this assumption is wrong. The total power of a school system can be increased and the activities of organized teachers will help to increase the power of the school system. "Strong, formally organized groups of teachers have influence or power in the larger community or social system and this power can be mobilized and used for the benefit of the school (4)."

Knowledge of the factors that are motivating teachers will not be enough to solve all of the administrator's problems in regard to collective negotiations. Other questions concerning bargaining units, what is to be negotiated, how to get ready for negotiations, and how the administrator can negotiate in a situation where he is a representative of the public and responsible to an elective board must also be answered.

Preparing for negotiations consumes a great deal of time. The preparation involves the selection of a negotiating team, planning the general position of the schools in regard to the negotiations, and even setting forth specific contract proposals which the school authorities want to see incorporated into the agreement. Because of the time involved, school boards will have to leave much of the preparation for negotiations to staff members. In some cases it may even be necessary for school boards to employ outside counsel or other experienced persons to help them prepare for the negotiation sessions. Reviewing negotiation agreements reached in other school systems would be especially helpful to the system which is negotiating for the first time. Attention should be paid to the areas about which employee organizations want to negotiate. These areas include such matters as salaries, promotion systems, vacations, pension and retirement systems, sabbaticals, leaves of absence. In addition, those planning for the negotiation should consider other areas which might possibly arise in the negotiation session. These areas include such items as class size, instructional load, specialized services, teacher aides and grievance procedures (8).

In regard to the negotiation process itself, Rehmus indicates that most negotiators have learned how to negotiate by watching others in the process. From the standpoint of school authorities, it would be best for them to hire professionals to negotiate for them. Considering that many school systems, especially small ones, cannot afford to proceed in this manner, they should insure that the persons negotiating for the school system are fair and firm and believe that the teachers have a legitimate right to negotiate with the school board. Difficult issues should be faced and discussed thoroughly, and trickery should be avoided. It is extremely important that those who represent the schools in the negotiations be fully familiar with the day-to-day operation of the system in order that they will not unknowingly make commitments that would unduly hamper the operation of the system. (8).

A major problem faced by school systems when entering negotiations is the uncertainty of the revenues that may be available to the school system during the course of the school year. While there are not completely satisfactory solutions to this problem, Rehmus recommends some possible approaches. The school board might wait until the amount of revenue is known and then negotiate on how the money will be distributed. Negotiations could proceed in phases, with the first phase devoted to negotiating salary schedules where the revenue is known and later negotiation sessions could deal with other matters which would be dependent upon more definite knowledge of the total revenue available for the school year. Another possible solution would be to negotiate on alternative agreements, dependent upon what revenues would become available (8).

Fulfilling the agreements reached in negotiations creates new situations for the school administration. Planning programs may be necessary to help administrators understand how the provisions of the negotiated contract are to be carried out. It is very important for the administrative officials to have a complete understanding of any grievance procedures which have been negotiated (8).

In some cases, school system officials and teachers will not be able to reach an agreement on some items in the negotiation procedure. There is, certainly, always the possibility of a strike on the part of the employees, however, there are many other ways that disagreement can be overcome. Among these are such procedures as "off-the-record" conferences, studies by special committees, mediation and conciliation, and occasionally reference to outside or higher level fact finding. One of the most productive ways for overcoming disagreement is for the school officials to look at the union's proposal as a possible solution to a problem for which there may be several other solutions, some of which would be more acceptable to the school officials (8).

Allowing teachers to have greater voice in the decision-making process of a school system within the structure of which most school systems now operate is a difficult process. At present, school board members and the administrators they hire are held responsible by the public for the operation of the schools. If something goes wrong, these are the people who must bear the responsibility for what has happened. Unless ways can be found whereby individual teachers can be held more responsible for their conduct and for their professional decisions, teachers are not likely to secure a greater voice in influencing school decisions (4).

--James D. Wilson

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DECISION-MAKING BY GROUPS AND INDIVIDUALS

This paper reviews research on educational decision-making and behavior patterns in the decision-making process as exhibited by administrators and school board members both in immediate operational decisions and long-range formulation of policy.

Questions

1. Will more decisions and solutions be produced by a group or by individuals?

2. Why are group processes so enthusiastically supported?

3. Which conditions produce more effective decisions?

4. What are the effects on group decision-making of similarity vs. dissimilarity in the belief systems of group members?

5. What are the similarities and differences of behavior in the decision-making process of two classifications of principals, effective and less effective?

6. How and to what extent should the superintendent participate in the decision-making of the board of education?

7. Can decision-making be improved through training?

Review of Studies

Group versus individual problem solving and decision-making have been investigated by Milton (6). The experiment consisted of 48 administrators--24 working in groups of four and 24 working as individuals on the same problem. The study found that, in general, individuals produce more solutions and effective decisions than groups.

A related study involving a comparison of the effects on group decision-making of similarity vs. dissimilarity in the belief systems of group members was completed by Conway (3). Students in a record year education teacher training course at the State University of New York at Albany participated in the study. There were 24 groups of four persons each in the experiment. Each group was given two problems to solve and two phases involved--the analytic and synthesis phase. The group discussions were recorded on tapes that were anlayzed to determine the percentage of time interaction occurred during problem-solving, time taken to overcome beliefs, total time taken to solve the problem after overcoming beliefs, and spontaneous expressions of rejection toward problems, group, experimentor, or the general situation. The study found, in general, that group problem-solving is a function of the belief systems of the group members.

Considered in a study by D'Arrigo (4) were the similarities and differences of behavior in the decision-making process of effective and less effective principals. Thirty-six urban school principals participated in the study. Eighteen principals were judged effective, eighteen less effective, based on the incidence of problems in their staff relationships. Less effective principals made more immediate decisions than effective principals. Both groups treated decisions more often as series rather than terminal. Both groups used predominantly more reward than punishment incentives in the implementation of decision.

In a study completed at the University of Chicago (1), participation by the superintendent and board of education was described in terms of three types of interaction: (1) "determining--action by the superintendent to resolve a problem situation without referring the problem to the board of education." (2) "Informing--bringing a problem situation to the board of education and offering data about the situation, but without commitment to a course of action." (3) "Advising--letting the board know what, in the opinion of the superintendent, should be done to resolve a problem situation."

One hundred and nine superintendents and 386 board members from Illinois and 32 professors of educational administration from major universities across the nation participated in the study. The questionnaire used was made up of 36 briefly described problem situations that represented situations where boards of education and superintendents might have occasion to make decisions. The respondents were asked to indicate for each problem situation the participation behavior type that was preferred for the superintendent.

Analysis of the replies of respondents indicated the following: (1) Superintendents did not differ very much from board members in preference scores for determining, informing, and recommending behavior on the part of the superintendent. (2) Professors showed more preference than either superintendents or board members for determining behavior on the part of the superintendent. (3) Professors showed less preference than either superintendents or board members for informing behavior on the part of the superintendent. (4) Board members, superintendents, and professors did not show any important differences in their preferences for recommending behavior on the part of the superintendent. "Clearly these findings indicate that superintendents were more like board members than they were like professors in their preference for participation in school board decision-making."

The purpose of a study by Fields (5) was to determine whether decision-making could be improved through training. Two experimental treatment procedures were devised. One consisted of a 30-minute lecture on the relationship of certain cognitive variables to decision-making performance and the second was made on a 30-minute lecture on the relationship of certain personality variables to decision-making performance. The third treatment given to two control groups consisted of a 30-minute lecture on facts of perception. One hundred and twenty adult male subjects ages 21 to 60 participated in the experiment.

The contention was that instruction in the relationship of cognitive and personality variables to decision-making performance would improve decision-making performance. Decision-making is not a phenomenon capable of being improved was the finding based on techniques used in the study.

Conclusions and Implications

A study by Milton (6) concluded that individuals produce more solutions and effective decisions than groups but group processes produce greater enthusiasm for a task because of members' feelings of accomplishment in the group. The study also concluded that the group process may be more effective for some responses, but individual processes are more superior for decision-making.

A study of the relationship of open- and closed-mindedness and problem-solving groups conducted by Conway (3) revealed the following conclusions: (1) Open groups (groups of individuals with belief systems that are predominantly open) share more ideas in a problem-solving session than closed groups (groups of individuals with belief systems that are predominantly closed). (2) Open groups could solve problems faster. (3) Open groups perform more effectively than closed groups in problem-solving activities. (4) Mixed groups (groups composed of an equal number of persons with predominantly open and closed belief systems) did not differ from closed groups on the proportion of time that group interaction occurred during problem-solving. In general, the study concluded that group problem-solving was a function of the belief system of the group members.

Characteristics of behavior of effective and less effective school administrators in the decision-making process have been investigated and the following conclusions made: (1) The behavior on the decision-making process of effective principals was associated with monitoring decisions and the use of reward incentives. (2) The behavior in the decision-making process of less effective principals was associated with the lack of monitoring of decisions, terminal decisions, one-alternative actions, and use of punishment incentives. Principals who monitored decisions were those with better staff relationships and greater executive professional leadership (4).

A study by Bowman (1) suggested that the superintendent may, under certain circumstances, make timely and equitable determinations, give accurate information, present carefully prepared recommendations, and still offend his board of education. Furthermore, "in considering the apparent state of agreement regarding appropriate participation behavior by the superintendent, one is almost forced to conclude that the collective opinion of any set of school board members regarding appropriate behavior for 'their' superintendent does constitute the practical definition." (1)

A study by Fields (5) investigated the improvement of the decision-making process through training. The idea that decision-making was a phenomenon capable of improvement by procedures used in the study was not accepted.

--C. Kenneth Tanner

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ADOPTION OF EDUCATIONAL INNOVATIONS

Throughout the past decade, schools have been under tremendous pressure to adopt innovations for increased effectiveness and efficiency. Many educators have responded by introducing such changes in the schools as the modern mathematics curriculum, team teaching techniques, computer assisted instruction, flexible scheduling, non-graded classes, foreign language labs, accelerated programs, and continuous progress education. The relatively slow pace at which many of these innovations have been adopted has prompted researchers to examine the phenomena of change in the schools. For the most part, studies have centered on characteristics of educational leaders, communities, and organizational climates of school systems which are related to the number and rate of adoptions of educational innovations.

Questions

1. What characteristics of school leaders and staff members are associated with the innovativeness of school systems?

2. What community characteristics are associated with innovation?

3. What organizational characteristics are associated with innovation?

Review of Studies

Characteristics of educational leaders and innovation. Carlson (3) studied 107 superintendents in Allegheny County, Pennsylvania, and of West Virginia to determine what characteristics of educational leaders were associated with the adoption rate of selected innovations. Information was gathered by use of questionnaires, interviews, and a list of innovations which required respondents to identify the time at which each innovation was introduced into the school system. Such innovations as modern mathematics, programmed instruction, team teaching, foreign language labs, and accelerated programs in secondary schools were included in the list.

As a result of the findings of the study Carlson concluded that: (1) The order of choice of friends forming sociometric pairs among superintendents influenced the timing of adoption; (2) The knowledge of a superintendent could be used, in part, to explain varying rates of adoption; (3) The superintendent's status in the social structure was related to the rate of adoption. Opinion leaders, among superintendents, were in the highest status level and mainly drew their advisees from the upper status level.

Late and non-adopters tended to (1) have less formal education; (2) receive fewer friendship choices; (3) know fewer of their peers well; (4) participate in fewer professional meetings; (5) interact less with others for advice; (6) score lower on professionalism measurements; (8) hold less prestigious superintendencies; (9) perceive less support from school boards; and (10) rely more on local sources for advice. Carlson concluded that since superintendents communicated primarily with superintendents of equal or higher status, diffusion of innovation to low-adopting school systems was impaired by lack of communication with lower status superintendents.

Personalities of superintendents and innovation. Laurence (9) attempted to determine if relationships existed between personality characteristics of school superintendents and willingness to accept innovations in education. One hundred and sixty-four superintendents, 93 in Idaho and 71 from twelve other states, who had been identified as implementors of innovations were selected for the study. Each superintendent was given a personality inventory test,[1] a test of innovativeness, and a questionnaire identifying their age, size of school district, and number of years in their current position.

Laurence found that relationship existed between personality characteristics and willingness to accept change. Of most importance were such personality characteristics as emotional stability, sober to happy-go-lucky, shy to venturesome, tough-minded to tender-minded, trusting to suspicious, and relaxed to tense. Superintendents from large school districts were more apt to be innovative. Age and number of years in present position had no relationship to innovations.

Ramer (12) was interested in determing whether relationships existed between belief systems or personal characteristics of chief school administrators and their attitudes toward educational innovation. All chief school administrators in eight counties of Western New York State were given (1) an Educational Innovative Attitude Scale, developed by the researchers, (2) the Rohrach Pragmatism Scale, an instrument designed to measure open- and closed-mindedness, and (3) a Personal Data Sheet.

The study results indicated that relationships existed between open-mindedness, age, length of service of the chief school administrator, and receptiveness to educational innovations. Relationships were also discovered between the amount of formal education of the administrator, expenditure per child, size of district, and the chief state school administrator's receptiveness to innovation.

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[1] Cattell's 16 P.E.

Administrative succession patterns and innovation. Knedlik (8) attempted to determine the effect of administrative succession patterns upon the frequency and extent of adoption of educational innovations in public secondary schools. A survey instrument, consisting of an adoption scale and a personal data section, was administered to principals and superintendents of 286 secondary schools in New York and New Jersey. Respondents indicated which innovations had been adopted in their schools between 1960 and 1967. One hundred and fifty responses were used in the data analysis. The respondents were classified in any one of four possible succession patterns derived by combining principals with their subordinates and based on whether each was an "outsider" or "insider" to the system.

Subsequent analysis of the relationship between the possible patterns and "innovativeness" indicated that the adoption of innovations varied with the succession patterns. Variance, however, was due to differences between outside and inside superintendents rather than to differences between outside and inside principals. The researcher concluded that " the investigation confirmed that the school superintendent is the key person responsible for educational change. The outside superintendent tends to exercise a 'mandate for change' and becomes the important 'agent for change' . . ."

Peach (10) explored the relationship of the roles of school principals and the implementation of planned change in the instructional program. Principals in 35 schools, representing four districts in the state of Washington, were given an organizational climate description questionnaire,[2] a biographical information form, and a structured interview. The 313 teachers from the same schools were also given an organizational climate description questionnaire and an instrument designed to measure the degree to which they were adaptive or conventional. An interview was also conducted with a central office administrator in each district.

The resulting data was analyzed in order to determine if relationships existed between (1) organizational climate, (2) qualities of interpersonal relationships in the schools, (3) the principals' peer-group status, (4) their professional and personal characteristics, (5) their perception of support given by subordinates, and (6) the number of planned changes implemented in the schools. The analysis indicated that qualities of interpersonal relationships, leadership styles, and the extent to which personal, social, and organizational goals were attained had little relationship with program adaptability.

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[2] Halpin and Croft.

The "openness of the system" was not substantiated as a factor contributing to adaptability.

Organizational climate and innovation. The purpose of a study conducted by Elliott (5) was to examine elements of "organizational climate," characteristics of the professional staff, and principals' self-expectations in order to determine how they related to educational innovation. Information was obtained from teachers and principals in 132 schools in the province of Alberta, Canada by questionnaires and other instruments designed to measure organizational climate and role perception. An analysis of the relationship of these characteristics was made in order to identify organizational conditions which allowed schools to adapt to changing needs.

Some conclusions and implications were: (1) Aloofness on the part of the principal was a definite barrier to communication. (2) The staff dimension, hinderance (undue burden of non-instructional tasks) is associated with the innovativeness of the principal. (3) The innovative principal is the one with extensive professional training. (4) The larger the tenure of a principal, the less innovative he tends to be. The principal who has remained for considerable time appears to become a "local" instead of a "cosmopolitan."

Self-perceptions of principals and innovation. Addis (1) attempted to isolate and analyze differences between high-innovative and low-innovative principals' perceptions of themselves, their positions, and administration in general. A second purpose of his study was to determine if age and tenure in present position had an effect upon these same perceptions.

Seven thousand respondents to a North Central Association Innovation Inventory were ranked by the number of innovations which they claimed had been adopted in their schools. One hundred fifty were then randomly selected from the ranked list and were divided into three groups according to their rank: high-innovative, middle innovative, and low innovative. Perceptions of self, position, and administration were measured by use of a semantic-differential scale.

When the three groups were compared as to perceptions and when the age and tenure of the respondents were considered no significant differences were found. The researcher concluded that "within the context of the instruments used, the conclusion is that there were no differences in ways the variously stratified principals perceived themselves, their positions, and administration in general."

Oakland County, Michigan: a study of innovation. Spencer's study (14) of 26 Oakland County, Michigan, school systems from 1954 to 1965 was made to determine if relationships existed between characteristics of the superintendents, the school district community, personnel, or district economic data, and degree of innovativeness. Information was obtained from interview-questionnaires, official public documents, and an innovative scale which included information regarding the adoption of 52 innovations.

> Major conclusions evolving from the investigation were: (1) Characteristics of the superintendent of schools and wealth of the school district were excellent predictors of innovativeness; (2) Three independent variables (salary of the superintendent, educational level of the superintendent and per-pupil revenue from federal grants) accounted for 71 percent of the variation in adaptability among local school districts; (3) Interaction with the intermediate school district office were shown to be good predictors of innovativeness; and (4) The Oakland County Intermediate Office provided leadership in the introduction of new practices in local districts. (14)

Hawkins (7) attempted to identify common characteristics which contributed to successful educational innovations through his examination of 27 California unified school districts which had been rated as most successful in bringing about change through the use of National Defense Education Act funds. The researcher used a partially structured questionnaire, visited each of the districts, and interviewed administrators, teachers, and lay citizens. He found that "(1) the most suitable district size for bringing about change is within the 8,000 to 20,000 enrollment range. (2) The accessibility of a college or university is a positive factor in bringing about change in a district. (3) Innovative districts are usually located in innovative communities which are receptive to educational betterment. (4) Superintendents, as change agents, must continue to grow as professionals. (5) Innovation can exist only in districts where there is mutual respect between the superintendent and the board of education and where the board is free from inner conflict."

The focus of Heck's study (6) was on programs of change and educational innovations within the elementary and secondary public schools of the state of Ohio during the period from 1958 to 1964. An educational innovation was defined as a program or practice which was new to the school where the program was operating, although not necessarily new to the world of education.

Questions concerning the content, initiation, funding, and evaluation of innovation were prepared for the following areas: instruction, administration, staff, physical plant, pupil personnel, school-community relations and research. After trial administration and subsequent revision, the questionnaire was administered to school superintendents throughout the state of Ohio. Subsequently, a screening analysis was conducted and the persons responsible for programs were sent an appropriate questionnaire. The return of this second questionnaire was rated by a panel of judges as to the degree of innovativeness of each respondent. The study findings included:

(1) Primary clustering of programs was in urban-suburban areas.

(2) Primary source of funds was the individual school.

(3) Ideas for programs generally came from local school personnel.

(4) Problems resulting from the decision to establish a new program were located primarily in the local school setting.

(5) Greatest subject matter emphasis identified was in the area of English language arts.

(6) The programs in the area of instruction gave equal attention to all students and to superior students.

(7) Grade twelve was affected most.

(8) Key facilitating factors for change were primarily found within the educational system, while deterring factors were almost equally divided between factors within and outside of the educational system.

Characteristics related to innovation in California and Oregon. Preising (11) studied public high schools in California and Oregon to discover if length of tenure of the staff, source of recruitment of administrators, size of the school and district, and expenditure per pupil were related to the status of schools in adopting innovations. The specific innovations selected were use of teacher aids, team teaching, variation in class size, and variation in length of class period. Information was solicited by use of a questionnaire sent to 105 Oregon and 309 California public high schools.

An analysis of the data indicated that: (1) Large schools and school districts as compared to their smaller counterparts were more likely to adopt structural innovations. (2) A discrepancy existed between the California and Oregon schools as to the relationship of the source of recruitment of superintendents and the adoption of the structural innovations measured in the study.

Chesler (4) inquired into the personal and social conditions affecting innovative classroom teaching in public elementary schools through his study of the entire staff of 16 elementary schools consisting of a total teacher population of 246. Each teacher reported whether or not he was innovating in his classroom and whether he knew if any of his colleagues were. In addition, a questionnaire was administered to all teachers in order to identify feelings about professional autonomy and influence, attitudes toward peers, and various demographic characteristics.

The findings of the study suggested that a teacher's educational level, teaching experience, and influence as perceived and desired in the school appear to be positively related to self-reported and peer-reported indices of innovation. Perception of the staff as a cohesive unit and nomination by peers as a high communicant, highly influential, and highly enthusiastic about new approaches to teaching were also related to the measure of innovation. Teachers' feelings of classroom autonomy did not appear to be associated with their teaching innovativeness.

Awareness of innovation. Weiss (15) was concerned with the awareness of educational change as the first stage in the change process. He used a sample of 140 mothers with children in the tenth grade in a community called "Changeville." By means of a questionnaire, the researcher determined the mothers' positions in the social structure, as measured by their educational level and values, as well as their educational aspirations for their children which were used to measure the value she placed on education. Awareness of educational change was also determined by items in the questionnaire.

The data confirmed the relationship of educational level and educational aspirations to awareness of educational innovation. The interpretation of the findings emphasized that, because of the type and level of aspirations held by people who themselves have a high school education or less, aspirations do little to increase awareness. Only among people with more than a high school education do aspirations relate strongly to awareness.

Diffusion of innovations. Rogers (13), in his review of research on the diffusion of innovation in many occupational settings, drew the following conclusions related to community and leadership characteristics. Innovativeness or receptivity to new ideas and practices seemed to be more characteristic of systems and communities which were well developed technologically, more literate, rational, empathetic, and cosmopolite. Those who tended to adopt innovations early also tended to be younger in age, to have higher social status, a more favorable financial situation, to be more capable of specialized kinds of operations, and to have a different type of mental ability than others.

He further indicated that influence from peers was most important when meeting resistance to changes and when the innovation or change created an uncertain situation. Change agents were those individuals who influenced adoption decisions in directions which they felt desirable. They tended to have more communication with higher status members of a system.

Financial characteristics and innovation. Breivogel (2) studied New Jersey public school districts to determine if relationships existed between financial or financially-related variables and the number and time of adoption of educational innovations. A questionnaire listing 26 educational innovations was sent to chief school officers of 195 public school districts in New Jersey in the fall of 1965. The number of innovations and time-of-adoption scores were determined for each district. These scores were then compared with nine financial and financially-related characteristics of the school systems through appropriate statistical techniques.

The researcher concluded that no important relationship existed between selected financial factors and the number and time of introduction of the selected educational innovations in New Jersey public school districts.

Conclusions and Implications

The studies reviewed in this report indicated that educational leaders associated with relatively higher innovative school systems tend:

(1) to be located in larger school systems,
(2) to have higher salaries and professional status,
(3) to have open channels of communication with administrators of equal or higher status,
(4) to have a more cosmopolitan as opposed to local orientations,
(5) to have a positive relationship with their school boards,
(6) to have come into the system from the outside rather than promoted from within, and
(7) to have higher ambitions.

Research further seems to indicate that the following characteristics of the educational environment are associated with higher innovativeness:

(1) urban or suburban
(2) larger districts
(3) higher expenditures per child
(4) wealth of the school district
(5) location in an innovative community
(6) higher educational level of the community

(7) per pupil expenditures from federal grants
(8) interaction with intermediate school districts.

Conflicting findings were indicated regarding the length of service or tenure for educational leaders and the significance of economic factors affecting the adaptability of school systems.

Although the findings of all of the studies cited in this report cannot be generalized to apply to all school districts because of the limitations of the studies themselves, implications might be drawn as a means of giving direction to the adoption of educational innovations.

1. Administrators might create an innovative staff by choosing teachers, possibly young ones, and certainly those who have a breadth of experience, sources of information and broad travel patterns.

2. Since innovativeness is associated with confrontation with programs and other experiences outside of the school system, consideration must be given to sending teachers to workshops, conferences, lectures, and innovative schools where they can be exposed to new ideas and methods.

3. There is a need for administrators to keep in close contact with research centers and other sources of educational ideas. Emphasis might be given to continous educational programs in colleges and universities as well as attendance at conferences and workshops. There is need to bring administrators, as potential change agents, into contact with successful and recognized leaders of innovative schools.

4. The occurrence of relationships between "innovativeness" and the wealth of the community and higher concentrations of population, does not necessarily indicate that less wealthy and rural school systems cannot be innovative. The attitude and progressiveness of the community and the level of leadership brought into the system seem to be important elements. School boards and administrators can exercise influence over these conditions by designing appropriate public relations programs and by careful selection of personnel.

5. Attention must be given to the amount and concentration of financial resources in support of innovations. Increases in per pupil expenditure and the aid of federal grants may be necessary to implement successful changes.

6. School systems might seek to establish and promote open channels of communication between higher education institutions, research centers, educational cooperatives, state departments of education, and the Office of Education as sources of ideas and resources.

--John W. Vroon

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SCHOOL BOARD PARTICIPATION IN ADMINISTRATOR SELECTION

"Students of administration, whether concerned with business, hospitals or schools, have always seen a clear distinction between the major function of a board and that of its professional staff. In general the board is pictured as a body of laymen which exercises control without getting involved in the machinery of operation, by setting up guides for discretionary action on the part of its executives. The chief executive officer, in the case of a school system, the superintendent, has the task of translating the board's policy into action. The actual administration of the enterprise is delegated to a professional staff while control is by the board exercised through determination of policy." (3)

Discussed in this paper are concepts pertaining to school board change and the succession pattern of superintendents. Also the process of selecting superintendents of schools as viewed by boards of education are discussed. Findings from two Canadian studies pertaining to the selection and the role of school administrators are analyzed. Furthermore, some developments in the process of selecting school principals are presented.

Questions

1. What effect will the defeat of a board member have on the board's relationship with the superintendent?

2. What opinion held by board members regarding the selection of a superintendent should be followed?

3. What are the expectations of school boards for the role of the superintendent in the administrative process?

4. What importance do school board members attach to the process of administration?

5. What procedures are followed and criteria are used for selecting school administrators in Canada?

6. What are some developments in the process of selecting school principals?

Review of Studies

Defeat of incumbent board member and change. In a study of school board change, Freeborn (4) assumed that the defeat of a board member constituted a visible reflection of community change. He hypothesized that such changes would affect the board's relationship with the superintendent. Furthermore, he contended that the defeat of an incumbent board member would be followed by turnover with a replacement superintendent coming from outside the district within three years. Also, so long as there was no defeat, there would be no turnover or, if it occurred, the replacement would be an inside man. From 1956 to 1965 this study investigated 117 school districts. The initial research centered on primary source records on file in county school offices. Interviews were held in the districts in question.

This study found that the meaning of a school board incumbent defeat is a rejection by the electorate of past direction. When a member is defeated, a power struggle on the board is set into motion. This defeat also is a threat to the established board and superintendent. "The normal consequence is a rejection of the old systems and the replacement of the old superintendent with an outside man." Finally, the defeat of a board member was found to be a powerful indicator of a feeling for organizational change.

Selection of superintendents viewed by boards. The opinion held by board members regarding procedures that should be followed and factors about candidates which are often considered when selecting a superintendent have been investigated by Holder (5). By analyzing data from 511 public school districts (grades 1-12) in the state of Oklahoma, he reported the following: (1) "Boards should develop and follow specific selection procedures." (2) "Boards should not formulate a job description and make it available to candidates." (3) "Boards do not follow the suggested guidelines." (4) "Existing guidelines do not meet the need of boards for selecting a superintendent." (5) "Boards from larger schools follow more scientific selection procedures than do boards from smaller schools." (6) "More than ten years' service on the board does not produce a more scientific approach to selecting the superintendent." (8) "Factors about candidates which are often considered by boards were rated on four levels of importance, and were as follows: a) Essential--Works well with others, morally upright, desires well-balanced program, skillful in school finance, man of integrity, respected by students, does not use alcoholic beverages, sincere, encourages faculty participation for improving the program, has confidence in his own judgment, and believes in education for all. b) Very desirable--Favorable experience in securing teachers and interested in communities activities.
c) Desirable--An outstanding student, good taste in selecting clothes and background in educational philosophy. d) Not important--Member of same lodge as at least one board member, member of same church as at least one board member, will come for less money than another, has published books and/or articles, served in armed forces, accepts contract terms without question, recommended by a leading citizen of the

community, and has an attractive wife." (9) "Agencies which would be contacted by board presidents for assistance in locating candidates were: a) State Department of Education, b) college and university placement bureaus, c) college departments of school administration, d) school administrators' associations, e) members of the local staff." (10) "Agencies that would not be contacted for assistance in locating candidates were: a) parent groups, b) school supply salesmen, c) commercial placement bureaus." (11) "Findings of this study and previous studies were: a) Boards would now consider younger candidates. b) Boards would now consider candidates with less administrative experience. c) Boards want to interview all applicants. d) Boards would develop and follow specific selection procedures."

Board expectations of superintendents. The expectations that school board members hold for the role of provisionally appointed superintendents of schools in Alberta have been studied by Finlay and Reeves (3). Eighty-four percent of 324 questionnaires to divisional school board members was returned for analysis. In the questionnaire the role of the Alberta school superintendent was divided in instructional leadership, selection and management of staff personnel, pupil personnel, provision and maintenance of school facilities, school finance, administrative organization and structure, and public relations. Forty-four tasks were listed under these seven areas which school board members might expect the superintendent to perform. A summary of the findings follows:

1. "The respondents in this study showed strong preference for independent action on the part of superintendents in the performance of duties related to instructional leadership. They considered this to be the most important function of the superintendent and few saw any need for directing him in this area of his work."

2. "In the selection and management of staff personnel the majority of the respondents indicated that they expected the superintendent to act under the direction of the board with respect to the selection and placement of personnel: specifically principals and teachers."

3. "In the same area of personnel management, respondents almost equally favored independent action or action under board direction for the superintendent in the task of directing the work of locally employed supervisory personnel."

4. "In the selection and management of secretary-treasurers and other non-professional staff, the respondents indicated strongly that they expected the superintendent to assume no responsibility. Experienced members showed significantly higher expectations for the role of no responsibility regarding non-professional staff than did the inexperienced members."

5. "Respondents expected the superintendents to take an active part in promoting the welfare of the teachers. While opinion was fairly evenly divided as to what form of action he should take, the greatest preference was shown for action under the direction of the board. Businessmen showing strong preference for independent action and farmers for action under board direction."

6. "Respondents ranked selection and management of staff personnel second in importance only to instructional leadership as a function of the superintendent. They placed this above pupil personnel management, which area they ranked third in importance."

7. "In the area of pupil personnel administration respondents indicated that they expected the superintendent to act independently of board direction in performing those tasks where professional knowledge of educational theory is essential. Where professional knowledge is not required, respondents favored the role of advisor for the superintendent."

8. "Inexperienced and experienced board members differed significantly in expectations for superintendent action regarding several of the tasks related to pupil personnel administration. Where a difference occurred, the inexperienced members invariably showed expectations for greater independent action or board directed action by the superintendent while the experienced tended to favor the advisory role or, in some instances, no responsibility whatever."

9. "Chairmen and members differed significantly in expectations for the role of the superintendent in the task of providing students with information about future job and educational opportunities. Chairmen showed greater expectations for superintendent action under board direction for this task than did the members, while the members favored the advisory role more strongly."

10. "In tasks related to the provision and maintenance of school facilities, respondents in the main looked upon the superintendent as an advisor. Only in the matter of recommending an architect to the board did the respondents favor another role and then only by a difference of 1 percent. Forty-four percent favored no responsibility for the superintendent in this task while forty-three percent favored the role of advisor."

11. "Inexperienced and experienced board members differed significantly in six of the ten tasks related to provision and maintenance of school facilities. While, as stated above, the advisory role was generally favored, inexperienced members leaned more strongly towards superintendent action under board direction and the experienced more frequently showed preference for no responsibility by the superintendent."

4

12. "In the first task of the above area--that of estimating the building needs of the division--businessmen and farmers differed significantly in six of the ten tasks related to provision and maintenance of school facilities. While, as stated above, the advisory role was generally favored, inexperienced members leaned more strongly towards superintendent action under board direction and the experienced more frequently showed preference for no responsibility by the superintendent."

13. "In the area of school finance, respondents indicated clearly that the expected the superintendent to assume no more than an advisory role and when it came to making surveys with respect to equitable pay scales for non-professional employees, they expected the superintendent to assume no responsibility whatever. Here again, however, expectations of inexperienced members were significantly higher for superintendent action than were those of the more experienced."

14. "In tasks related to administrative organization and structure, respondents again looked upon the superintendent as an advisor. Only in one of these tasks was a significant difference found between the expectations of two groups of respondents and again the difference was between inexperienced and experienced members. In the task of organizing local boards and committees, a significantly smaller number of inexperienced members favored the advisory role and larger percentages favored independent action or no responsibility at all than was the case of the experienced members."

15. "Respondents ranked the area of finance as the least important administrative function of the provincially appointed superintendent."

16. "In the area of public relations, respondents generally favored independent action by the superintendent. They did not, however, rank this area high in importance as a function of the superintendent. It was ranked fifth in importance, along with the areas of administrative organization and structure and the provision and maintenance of school facilities."

Criteria for selection of administrators. The purpose of a study by Davis (1) was to examine procedures and criteria used for selecting school administrators in Canada. Eighteen large urban school systems in Ontario, Quebec, and Nova Scotia were selected for study. Two questionnaires were compiled, one by principals and one by superintendents. Eighty-one percent of 350 questionnaires were returned.

The study found that in only seven of eighteen systems was the selection policy wholly or partly written, and in only five systems was the written policy available to staff. Data revealed the average age of persons appointed to administrative positions in elementary school systems (35 years) and unified systems (40 years). There was no relationship reported in the literature between age and an administrator's rated effectiveness, but general opinion was expressed that a school administrator must be old enough to have maturity, experience and education necessary to do his work and command the respect of his associates.

According to Erickson (2) there is evidence that suggests more emphasis in the future upon the matching of administrators and situations, even though the matching must still proceed largely on the basis of intuitive judgment.

Conclusions and Implications

In a study by Freeborn (4) some important conclusions regarding school board change and the succession pattern of superintendents were revealed. The study found that board member defeats tend to result in the selection of outside replacements while the absence of such defeats leads to continuance of the old superintendent or the selection of inside replacements.

Furthermore, it has been shown that the longer the term in office of a school superintendent, the greater the possibility that the successor would be an outside man.

The process of selecting superintendents of schools as viewed by boards of education has been analyzed by Holder (5). Data in the study support the following conclusions:

(1) "Most boards do not know or do not follow the most scientific selection procedures."

(2) "Boards from larger schools follow more scientific selection procedures than do boards from smaller schools."

(3) "The educational level of a board president has a greater bearing upon scientific procedures followed by a board than does length of service on the board."

(4) "Most board presidents would accept a candidate who did not meet state certification requirements."

(5) "Most board presidents would search for a superintendent without defining the position or the qualities desired in a candidate."

The expectations of school boards for the role of the provincially appointed superintendent of schools in Alberta have been studied by Finlay and Reeves (3). Some conclusions from this study were:

(1) Great significance is attached to the appointed superintendent's role as an instructional leader. School boards expect the superintendent to perform tasks related to this area independently of board action.

(2) In Alberta, school boards see the superintendent as an executive officer in hiring and placing teachers and principals in their schools.

(3) School boards expect the superintendent to direct the work of supervisory personnel and there is very little threat that the boards will deal directly with the supervisory staff and by-pass the superintendent.

(4) The work of non-professional staff is directed by school boards. The superintendent does not assume responsibility in this area.

(5) School boards hold high regard to the superintendent's services in the employment of professional staff.

(6) Board members of Alberta consider themselves as administrators rather than legislators or policy makers.

(7) Board members of Alberta wish to retain very close control of spending; therefore, they do not consider that the superintendent must be an expert in the field of finance.

Selection of an educational administrator is one of the most important decisions a school system must make. One conclusion concerning procedures and criteria used in selection of administrators in Canada as a result of a study by Davis (1) is that selection policies in many systems are poorly defined and exist primarily in the minds of those responsible for selection. "Most superintendents rely upon the use of such devices as interviews, observations, and applications to help them decide whether candidates are suitable for appointment. The literature, on the other hand, recommends the use of rating scales, tests, and internship programs."

Another conclusion reached by this study was that superintendents and their appointees disagree as to which selection factors are most important. Some superintendents attach great importance to ability to get along with people and leadership. On the other hand, appointees believe that the most important factors in their selection are associated with ability to teach and their training. Experience is considered by both groups to be an extremely important factor.

A further conclusion was that different practices exist between superintendents of elementary school systems and superintendents of secondary schools regarding policies of selection. Superintendents of elementary school districts tend to consider younger persons and those with less experience, while the latter require initially higher academic qualifications of all their appointees.

Some conclusions by Erickson (2) in a study of developments in selection of school principals are applicable to the topic under consideration. This study has as one conclusion that we need a systematic, empirically verified theory of administration-situation interaction. Erickson contends that there is more reason than ever for screening all candidates rigorously for basic mental abilities and perhaps for a general knowledge of the culture. "The practice of preferring males and candidates with several years of teaching experience, on the other hand, may be seriously questioned."

Because of mounting evidence more emphasis in the future should be placed on matching of administrators and situations, even on the basis of intuitive judgment. "Explicit judgments should be made concerning the situational changes that seem desirable and concerning the kinds of administrators deemed most likely to effectuate such change."

--C. Kenneth Tanner

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APPENDIX A

Goals and Objectives

GOALS AND OBJECTIVES

Traditionally, school administrators and instructional personnel have had to work within a broad framework of guidelines set forth by decisions of school board members. While boards of education by themselves may not initiate change, they are in a position to influence or to hinder educational change and development. It is imperative, then, that school board members have at their fingertips for decision-making the kind of information which will allow their policy guidelines to be the most flexible and realistic in terms of the best programs of education available.

This project purports to assimilate educational research of particular interest to school board members. The procedural plan includes: selection of crucial areas of decision-making, utilization of an advisory and screening committee to assess effectiveness of language for the layman, research analysis and interpretation, and development of a portable "packaged" program that can be used as an inservice training device.

Specific goals and objectives of the project are as follows:

1. To identify and select broad areas of concern to the school board decision-making process. An advisory committee will implement this step.

2. To select relevant research in each broad area of concern that has been selected.

3. To abstract and critique this research.

4. To select, utilizing a research screening committee, the most pertinent of that research which has been abstracted and critiqued.

5. To analyze and interpret research selected by the screening committee in each of the broad areas of concern in such a way as to make it understandable to the layman.

6. To develop a final report by subheadings of major areas of concern which will include the resumé in layman's language of the research which has been analyzed.

7. To anticipate the actual repackaging and dissemination of this information to the school board members.

The major emphasis of the project is upon selection of research and understanding of the audience. The advisory board is to delimit the areas of emphasis for research analysis. Guidelines for abstracting and critiquing of the research have been developed. Once priority areas of interest have been selected, these guidelines will be sent to other departments and schools at the University to encourage abstraction of research for this project. If successful, the same procedure will be extended to include other colleges and educational agencies in the state.

Research sources will be reviewed for pertinent research in areas which have been delimited by the advisory committee. Research results in each major area of emphasis will be developed and used in the final presentation. Project and University staff will analyze and interpret the research which has been abstracted and critiqued. The results of the analysis and interpretation step will be reviewed by the advisory and screening committee for applicability to practice and for presentation in layman's language for the non-researcher.

The advisory committee will meet to choose from the material which has been abstracted the most pertinent research results as they pertain to the decision-making processes of school board members. Once the most pertinent of the research results have been chosen, those abstracts and the articles from which the abstracts have been taken will be analyzed in depth in terms of problems of school boards. These analyzed results will then be screened once more by the advisory committee. The remaining items will be interpreted, i.e., the research results will be refined in language and situations familiar to the audience. A review panel will make a final selection of all research results which have been analyzed and interpreted. Materials from this final selection will be those which should be packaged and disseminated in the next phase of the program.

APPENDIX B

Reports of Advisory Committee Meetings

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ADVISORY COMMITTEE
CONFERENCE REPORT

Project No. 8-0606
Grant No. OEG-0-9-520606-0781(010)

INITIAL GUIDELINES

Dr. Dewey H. Stollar
Sam P. Sentelle
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The University of Tennessee
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December 13-14, 1968

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF
HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE

Office of Education
Bureau of Research

INITIAL GUIDELINES[1]

Delimitations of Task Areas

Board members are faced with problems on at least two levels of magnitude. First are current problems which must be resolved immediately with or without expert assistance. Then there are comprehensive long-term issues. Although the techniques for dealing with these will change from time to time, the basic problems will remain. An example of a problem at the lower level is collective negotiations which is only one limited aspect of a much larger problem in personnel and organization. Information in this area is changing almost daily, will continue to change, and the problem may not be present ten years from now. Yet collective negotiations is a problem which many school boards have to face today and a good deal of research is already available.

The advisory committee recommends that the project limit its attention, for the present time at least, to the more critical and urgent immediate problems confronting school boards. There is a consensus of opinion that efforts of the project staff should concentrate within the following broad task areas: (1) community relations, (2) personnel and organization, and (3) policy formulation and decision-making. These are the areas of paramount concern to school board members.

Within these broad areas select some smaller specific topics for intensive study. Determine how to identify relevant sources for each topic and organize available materials in such a way that information may be located easily. These first attempts will be experimental in a sense, but they will provide a growing basis of experience for refinement of techniques and operational methods as the project proceeds.

Dissemination

Information for board members should be presented in capsule form in such a way that it is readily available. Board members are problem oriented. They seek practical answers to specific questions. For most of them, the school board role is only a part-time obligation, and board members tend to rely on information sources which are easy to obtain and understand.

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[1] A systhesis of opinions expressed by advisory committee members drawn primarily from a tape record of the first committee conference (December 13-14, 1968), and reactions of committee members at that time to "Supplementary Materials for Project Advisory Committee." (SPS)

Results of the project should consist of three products: First is a bibliography of all research materials pertaining to a specific topic. From this will come a series of abstracts of selected bibliography items. The final stage should consist of a synthesis of these materials into a form designed for dissemination on a broad scale.

This final phase contains the real potential for the project to make a significant contribution: Comprehensive bibliographies on almost every subject are already available. Several abstracting services are currently in operation. But the interpretation of research for the most part is a new area of endeavor. Interpretation is the crux of the problem in research dissemination. In the extreme it is an exercise in futility, and the person who undertakes the extremely difficult task of amalgamating research is no longer respected, even among his own peers. Yet this research is of little value unless processed into a form in which it can be used by board members. The committee recommends, therefore, that this synthesis of research materials be the ultimate objective of the project. The final product for each specific topic selected by the project staff should be an amalgamation and synthesis of the original research materials.

Matters of Style

The specific nature of each of these reports for dissemination must be determined by the nature of the research materials on which they are based and by the expert judgment of the project staff.

Keep the audience in mind as reports are prepared. There will be a tremendous diversity of audience among board members alone, but this information will be of interest to persons in administration and the academic community as well. Stay away from highly technical language. Aim at the layman, and use simple English that everyone can understand.

Special Problems

Contradictory research results. Where research conclusions are contradictory, both sides should be presented. Especially is this true in cases where different situations have produced the conflicting results. The information in these instances should be presented in such a way that board members will be able to relate a particular situation to specific research contexts. Where there are contradictory research results, the school board must assume certain responsibilities for interpretation beyond those exercised by the project staff.

Opinionated articles. The committee is divided on the question of opinionated articles. Some members feel that only pure research should be included among source materials while others indicate that the judgment of expert witnesses can be very useful to board members. The knowledge, background and experience of the opinionated writer is sometimes more valuable than the findings of the inexperienced researcher. A document should be judged on the quality of the thinking and the extent to which it can facilitate an examination of the topic.

The project staff must exercise a certain degree of judgment in selection of source materials. The staff has the competency to make such judgments. Staff members have some understanding and expertise that the target audience is not going to have. Part of the value of the project hinges on the quality of judgment and discrimination which they exercise.

ADVISORY COMMITTEE
CONFERENCE REPORT

Project No. 8-0606
Grant No. OEG-0-9-520606-0781(010)

REPORT OF SECOND MEETING

Dr. Dewey H. Stollar
Sam P. Sentelle
James D. Wilson
The University of Tennessee
Knoxville, Tennessee 37916

January 31 - February 1, 1969

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF
HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE

Office of Education
Bureau of Research

REPORT OF SECOND MEETING

Comments on Objectives and Contributions of the Project

Dr. Ellena made the following comment: "I would try to phrase what you are trying to do something like this: Is it possible to identify, collect, abstract, and interpret research findings and other data that have pertinence to some of the major problems confronting boards of education that will enable them to make wiser decisions? I believe in the long run the contribution that you will make will not be in the identification of the research at all, but rather hopefully in the identification of a technique that really will be long lasting and could be used and expanded in future months and future years.

The opinion was expressed by several members of the committee that in addition to school board members, superintendents, principals universities preparing educational administrators could make good use of the materials developed in the project. Dr. Martin indicated that most large school systems have a department of research which spends a great deal of time and money in trying to locate research on various aspects of the school operation and that a central agency such as might grow out of an extension of this project could actually save the local school districts a great deal of money and time by supplying to them the kinds of information that otherwise each individual school district would have to find for itself.

Information Desired by School Board Members

Dr. Webb indicated that when board members are asked to respond in relation to what information they want or need they usually ask for information that will help them deal with problems they are facing right now rather than with problems which they are anticipating. Dr. Achilles stated that there are a number of areas in which board members are not aware that they need information; however, professionals believe that such information will be needed in the immediate future. Dr. Harris said that he had been involved in a field study in which school board members and superintendents were asked to rank some thirty items on the basis of which ones they needed to know more about. The following is a list of those items in rank order.

1. Describing the educational program to the public.
2. Evaluating the total educational program.
3. Negotiating with teachers.
4. Setting salary policy and salary schedules.
5. Determining public's educational preferences.
6. Evaluating performance of professional staff.

7. Formulating strategy for bond issues and tax levies.
8. Evaluating specific educational innovations.
9. Setting requirements and procedures for inservice training.
10. Establishing policies for curriculum review and revision.
11. Specifying instructional objectives in measurable terms.
12. Training school board members.
13. Obtaining state and federal financial support.
14. Establishing policy and procedure for staff selection.
15. Planning and constructing new buildings.
16. Setting policies for counseling and guidance.
17. Planning for maintenance of buildings and facilities.
18. Establishing policy for purchasing supplies.
19. Determining policies for transportation of students.
20. Recruiting staff.
21. Setting policy for use of buildings after school hours.
22. Setting policy for student conduct.
23. Planning spatial and organizational designs of school systems.
24. Setting policy for adult education.
25. Planning for acquisition of land for new facilities.
26. Setting policy for special classes.
27. Setting policy for lunch programs.
28. Dealing with minority groups on special problems.
29. Setting policy for student health services.
30. Investing funds for maximum return.

Discussion of Project Procedures

In relation to his statement about the objectives of the project, Dr. Ellena stated: "I think you just have to carve out a chunk (of research) that seems reasonable and would be wide enough and in depth enough to justify a valid testing of the technique." Dr. Ellena also suggested that it might prove helpful to pose a very limited number of questions under each of the general headings. These questions should be ones that literally confront the board of education in each area and could serve as guides for the development of each article.

In relation to what might be done with the materials developed in the project, Dr. Harris made the following comments. "You could begin to develop a set of slides, for example, or film strips or even a movie if you can get enough money. But I would say to start with, you might use slides and a narrative that goes along with them and point out by use of charts and so forth the kinds of things that you have found here. It seems to me that you've got another three-year project to take this stuff and put it into communicable form."

The suggestion was made that a dissemination project might be patterned after the UCEA operation in regard to the educational administrator's abstracts. This would involve professors and institutions with an interest and competence in a given area collecting information, developing articles, and keeping them up-to-date. The University of Tennessee, if it were to be the central location of the project, could serve as a clearinghouse and the reviews of literature and articles written by professors could be sent to the University for editing and repackaging. UCEA has not had trouble recruiting professors to write their abstracts even though they are not paid for this service. However, it would be a different matter to get people to write the type of articles necessary for this project. A great deal more is involved in analyzing and interpreting research than in writing abstracts of given articles. For this reason, it would seem necessary that persons who are used for this service be paid.

Reactions to Articles

A concern was expressed by Harold Webb that each article contain substance which tends to give some direction or guidelines that would help board members in dealing with their problems rather than just containing information on research that would be nice to know but not of any particular concern as to an approach to solving a problem. Discussion of the committee indicated that when there is research on two different sides of a question that both sides should be included in the discussion of the problem. It was also indicated that when a study is limited because of a small sample or for any other reason, that this should be included in the article.

Specific comments on the five articles reviewed indicated that the content of the articles needed to be more explicit and more detailed. It was suggested that a possible format for the articles might be patterned after the NEA publication What Research Says to the Teacher.

A number of additional sources of research were suggested by various members of the committee.

ADVISORY COMMITTEE
CONFERENCE REPORT
Project No. 8-0606
Grant No. OEG-0-9-520606-0781(010)

REPORT OF THIRD MEETING
Dr. Dewey H. Stollar
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James D. Wilson
The University of Tennessee
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May 2-3, 1969

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF
HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE

Office of Education
Bureau of Research

REPORT OF THIRD MEETING

The two main purposes of the third meeting of the Advisory Committee were (1) to review and comment on each of the research reports to be included in the final report of the project and (2) to secure committee reaction to proposals for continuation of the project and for additional activities relating to or growing out of the current project. Dr. Achilles reviewed a possible continuation project with the committee which would be primarily concerned with two phases. Phase one would involve the continual updating of the materials developed by the current project, expanding these materials, and developing a data bank for easy access to materials developed for dissemination. Phase two would involve the production of additional materials similar to those developed by the current project.

The committee was also presented with the possibility of a project which would be designed to disseminate research information to school board members. This project would provide for board members from a single school board or from a number of school boards to meet and have presentations of research on various topics of concern made to them. The project might concern itself with pilot testing this type of procedure. The project might also provide for furnishing research information or presentations at the request of individual boards of education.

There was some discussion among the committee members concerning approaches which might improve the quality and functioning of future projects similar to the present one. One suggestion indicated that a network of recognized authorities in various areas of concern to school board members might be established to develop research reports which could be used in presentations. Another suggestion was that greater emphasis in future reports be placed on presenting board members with various alternatives of action that they might take in relation to the problems they face.

Members of the Advisory Committee were asked to indicate in writing at a later date whether or not they would consider serving on an advisory committee for a continuation project if one were undertaken.

The remainder of the third committee meeting was spent in evaluating the research reports going into the final report of the present project. Twenty of the research reports were reviewed by the committee and suggestions for changes and alterations were made.

APPENDIX C

Supplementary Materials

Project No. 8-0606
Grant or Contract No. OEG-0-9-520606-0781(010)

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIALS FOR PROJECT ADVISORY COMMITTEE

Dr. Dewey H. Stollar
Sam P. Sentelle
James D. Wilson
The University of Tennessee
Knoxville, Tennessee 37916

November 1968

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF
HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE

Office of Education
Bureau of Research

ERIC DESCRIPTORS

This list of descriptors is an abridgment of the ERIC Thesaurus of Descriptors. Items of particular interest to board members have been selected by the project investigators.

Members of the advisory committee are requested to peruse the following list, and add relevant descriptors which have been omitted. Then select those descriptors relating to areas in which investigation by the project would be most beneficial.

Using a three-point scale, assign priorities to descriptors selected: Let three (3) represent highest priority, and one (1) represent lowest priority. Indicate priority immediately to the left of each descriptor in the margins of the columns.

The project investigators will use a summation process to poll committee concensus.

Administrative Organization
Administrative Personnel
Administrative Policy
Administrative Problems
Administrator Attitudes

Adult Education Programs
After School Programs
Automation
Biracial Committees
Biracial Elementary Schools

Biracial Government
Biracial Schools
Biracial Secondary Schools
Board Candidates
Board of Education Policy

Board of Education Role
Board of Education
Bond Issues
Budgeting
Budgets

Building Design
Building Equipment
Building Improvement
Building Innovation
Building Operation

Buildings
Bureaucracy
Bus Transportation
Business
Capital

Capital Outlay
Capital Outlay (for Fixed Assets)
Centralization
Citizen Participation
City Demography

Collective Bargaining
Collective Negotiations
Collective Settlement
Community Attitudes
Community Benefits

Community Cooperation
Community Influence
Community Involvement
Community Leaders
Community Organization

Community Planning
Community Problems
Community Relations
Community Resources
Community Responsibility

Community Role
Community Service Programs
Community Services
Community Study
Community Support

Community Surveys
Community Zoning
Compensatory Education Programs
Construction Costs
Construction Needs

Contract Salaries
Contracts
Cooperative Planning
Cooperative Programs
Cooperatives

Coordination
Costs
County School Systems
Court Cases
Court Doctrine

Court Litigation
Court Role
Courts
Cultural Differences
Decentralization

Decentralized Library System
Decentralized School Design
Decision Making
Decision Making Skills
Defacto Segregation

Dejure Segregation
Demography
Demonstrations (Civil)
Design
Educational Change

Educational Coordination
Educational Demand
Educational Environment
Educational Equality
Educational Equipment

Educational Facilities
Educational Finance
Educational Innovation
Educational Legislation
Educational Mobility

Educational Needs
Educational Objectives
Educational Philosophy
Educational Planning
Educational Policy

Educational Practice
Educational Principles
Educational Problems
Educational Programs
Educational Quality

Educational Research
Educational Resources
Educational Responsibility
Educational Services
Educational Specifications

Educational Status Comparison
Educational Trends
Elections
Employment Problems
Employment Programs

Employment Qualifications
Enrollment Projections
Enrollment Rate
Enrollment Trends
Equipment Evaluation

Estimated Costs
Evaluation Methods
Evaluation Techniques
Expenditures
Facilities

Facility Expansion
Faculty Integration
Faculty Recruitment
Federal Aid
Federal Court Litigation

Federal Programs
Financial Needs
Financial Policy
Financial Problems
Financial Services

Financial Support
Fiscal Capacity
Fringe Benefits
Grade Organization
Grants

Grievance Procedures
High School Design
High School Organization
Informal Leadership
Informal Organization

Innovation
Instructional Materials Center
Instructional Staff
Integration Effects
Integration Litigation

Integration Methods
Integration Plans
Integration Readiness
Integration Studies
Interaction Process Analysis

Interagency Cooperation
Interagency Coordination
Interagency Planning
Interpersonal Competence
Interpersonal Problems

Interpersonal Relationship
Interschool Communication
Lay Teachers
Leadership
Leadership Qualities

Leadership Responsibility
Leadership Styles
Leadership Training
Legal Aid
Legal Aid Projects

Legal Costs
Legal Problems
Legal Responsibility
Legal Segregation
Local Unions

Lower Class Students
Lunch Programs
Merit Rating Programs
Money Management
Multipurpose Classrooms

National Demography
Negro Attitudes
Negro Education
Negro Students
Negro Teachers

Neighborhood School Policy
Neighborhood Schools
Night Schools
Nongraded Classes
Nongraded System

Nonprofessional Personnel
Open Enrollment
Operating Expenses
Organizational Change
Organizational Climate

Out-of-School Youth
Outdoor Education
Personnel Data
Personnel Policy
Personnel Selection

Planning Meetings
Policy Formation
Political Influences
Political Power
Poverty Programs

Power Structure
Preschool Education
Press Opinion
Principals
Professional Associations

Professional Personnel
Program Budgeting
Program Evaluation
Programmed Instruction
Public Education

Public Opinion
Public Policy
Public Relations
Public School Systems
Public Schools

Public Support
Race Relations
Racial Attitudes
Racial Balance
Racial Differences

Racial Integration
Racially Balanced Schools
Research Utilization
Resource Allocations
Resource Centers

Restrictive Transfer Programs
Role Conflict
Rural Education
Rural School Systems
Rural Schools

Rural-Urban Differences
Sanctions
School Accidents
School Accounting
School Attitudes

School Boycotts
School Budget Elections
School Buildings
School Closing
School-Community Cooperation

School-Community Relationship
School Conditions
School Construction
School Demography
School Design

School District Spending
School Districts
School Enrollment
School Expansion
School Funds

School Holding Power
School Improvement
School-Industry Relationship
School Integration
School Law

School Location
School Maintenance
School Organization
School Personnel
School Planning

School Policy
School Recreational Programs
School Redistricting
School Responsibility
School Role

School Segregation
School Size
School Superintendents
School Support
School Surveys

School Systems
School Vandalism
School Zoning
Secondary Education
Secondary Schools

Segregated Public Facilities
Sex Education
Shared Services
Slum Schools
Social Differences

Social Discrimination
Socially Disadvantaged
Staff Improvement
Staff Utilization
State Aid

State-Federal Aid
State-Federal Support
Strikes
Student Personnel Programs
Student-Teacher Ratio

Subprofessionals
Suburban Schools
Summer Programs
Superintendent Role
Superintendent

Supervisors
Supplementary Education
Supplementary Education Centers
Supreme Court Litigation
Tax Allocation

Tax Effort
Tax Rates
Tax Support
Teacher Aids
Teacher Attitudes

Teacher Employment
Teacher Evaluation
Teacher Integration
Teacher Morale
Teacher Placement

Teacher Qualifications
Teacher Rating
Teacher Recruitment
Teacher Salaries
Teacher Selection

Teacher Strikes
Teacher Supply and Demand
Teacher Transfer
Teacher Workshops
Teaching Benefits

Teaching Machines
Team Administrators
Team Teaching
Technical Education
Tenure

Trade and Industrial Education
Transfer Policy
Unions
Urban Education
Urban Schools

Vocational Education
Vocational High Schools
Vocational Schools

STUDY AREAS

Members of the advisory committee are requested to name and define areas for concentrated investigation in the project. These study areas will serve (1) to direct the efforts of the project investigators and (2) as a basis for categorical classification of assimilated materials.

Some suggestions follow. Space has been provided for notations.

Collective Negotiations

Community Relations

Finance

Budgeting, school district spending, educational finance, tax effort, school budget elections, bond issues.

Integration

Defacto segregation, dejure segregation, cultural and social differences, discrimination.

Organization

Specifically, organization of school systems with resepct to physical facilities and enrollment. Zoning, centralization, decentralization.

Personnel

Policy concern with respect to personnel. Teacher supply and demand, salary schedules, working conditions.

Physical Facilities

Building design, educational specifications, quality control.

Policy and Decision-Making

The role of the board of education within the school system, modes of operation, interpersonal relationships among board members, formulation of policy, the decision-making process, relationship of board with superintendent.

Program

Innovation and change, educational cooperatives, educational television, nongraded programs.

School Law

Court doctrine, court litigation, school law cases.

School Services

Transportation, lunch programs, health services.

Teacher Militancy

Teacher strikes and reasons for teacher strikes. Historical and statistical treatments suggested which would utilize materials in statistical abstracts and at the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. Issues and demands in strikes, outcomes and settlements, discernable patterns, trends.

ABSTRACTOR'S GUIDE

(Analysis and Interpretation of Research for School Board Members)

1. The nature of documents acceptable for abstracting is as follows:

(a) The documents should deal with basic research, applied research, descriptive studies, surveys, and reports or evaluation of experimental programs. Documents of a nonresearch nature and articles of opinion should be avoided.

(b) Unpublished as well as published material may be abstracted, provided that copies of the unpublished material can be made available to the project staff.

(c) The research techniques employed in the studies should be of high quality and the content of the studies should be relevant and pertinent to a national audience of school board members.

(d) Documents falling within the scope of the areas contained on Attachment I may be acceptable for abstracting.

(e) As a general rule acceptable documents may date back to 1965. However, research prior to 1965 may be included if it is of significant value.

2. In order to avoid duplication of effort by abstracting documents which have been previously abstracted, we are asking abstractors to submit a list of documents for possible abstracting so that the project staff can check for existing abstracts of such documents. Forms for this purpose will be provided to the abstractors. When the search for existing abstracts has been completed, the project staff will notify the abstractors concerning which documents they should proceed to abstract.

3. The project staff will provide forms on which the abstracts may be typed. These forms contain spaces for identification information including: author(s), title of document, publication title, publisher or source (including address), volume number, pagination, date of publication, total pages, and copyright. The identification information should be as complete as possible. If any point is not applicable, place "NA" in that space.

4. The abstract should be an objective summary of the contents of the document. Personal evaluation of the design, statistics, and appropriateness of conclusions should not be included.

The abstract should be a brief (500 words or less) description of the scope, purpose, content, interpretation, and contribution of the document. Conclusions, recommendations, and limitations contained in the document should be included. To obtain an overall impression of the document content, the abstractor should consult the table of contents, summaries, and conclusion.

The writing style should be easily understandable and precise and should avoid giving a disjointed impression. The opening statement of the abstract should not be a rephrasing of the title. Attachment II is an example of an acceptable abstract.

5. When the abstract is completed, two copies should be submitted to the project staff. If abstracts are mailed, they should be addressed to:

School Board Research Project
Room 106A, Claxton Education Bldg.
The University of Tennessee
Knoxville, Tennessee 37916

ATTACHMENT I

The following topics relate to the concerns of school board members. Abstractors may use this list of topics as a guide to research areas from which documents may be selected for abstracting. The abstractor may be aware of other important areas which are not included on the list. If so, he may submit documents in these areas for consideration by the project staff.

Collective Negotiations

Community Relations

Finance

Budgeting, school district spending, educational finance, tax effort, school budget elections, bond issues.

Segregation

Defacto segregation, dejure segregation, cultural and social differences, discrimination.

Organization

Specifically, organization of school systems with respect to physical facilities and enrollment. Zoning, centralization, decentralization.

Personnel

Policy concern with respect to personnel. Teacher supply and demand, salary schedules, working conditions.

Physical Facilities

Building design, educational specifications, quality control.

Policy and Decision-Making

The role of the board of education within the school system, modes of operation, interpersonal relationships among board members, formulation of policy, the decision-making process, relationship of board with superintendent.

Program

Innovation and change, educational cooperatives, educational television, nongraded programs.

School Law

Court doctrine, court litigation, school law cases.

School Services

Transportation, lunch programs, health services.

Teacher Militancy

Teacher strikes and reasons for teacher strikes. Historical and statistical treatments suggested which would utilize materials in statistical abstracts and at the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics. Issues and demands in strikes, outcomes and settlements, discernable patterns, trends.

ABSTRACT FORM

(Analysis and Interpretation of Research for School Board Members)

Author(s): Patrick W. Carlton

Title of Document: The Attitudes of Certificated Instructional Personnel Toward Professional Negotiation and "Sanctions."

Publication Title: NA
Volume No.: NA, Date: NA, Pagination: NA

Publisher or Source: University of Oregon
Address: Eugene, Oregon

Total Number of Pages: 227, Copyrighted? Yes___ No X

Abstract:

Based on a 71 percent response from a selected sample of North Carolina principals and teachers (345 male principals, 117 female principals, 399 male teachers, and 388 female teachers), a study was made of educators' attitudes toward three components of collective action -- collective negotiation, sanctions, and strikes. Likert-type scales were developed to measure attitudinal sets of the four groups of educators to each of the three components. Statistical analyses, primarily by two-way analysis of variance and Pearson product-movement correlation, confirmed the study's two major hypotheses -- (1) male educators are more favorably inclined than female educators toward collective teacher action, including negotiations, sanctions, and strikes, and (2) classroom teachers are more favorably inclined than principals toward teacher collective action, including collective negotiations, sanctions, and strikes. Related factors analyzed included the period of educator's residence in the state, educational level, type of school unit in which employed, size of town, length of experience, level at which employed, and level of certification. Analysis indicated a significantly positive relationship between collective negotiations and the philosophical orientation of educators on a progressivism-traditionalism continuum but only minimal correlations of philosophical orientation with sanctions and strikes.

(Note: Attach additional sheet if more space is needed.)

APPENDIX D

Research Abstracts

Allen, Dwight W.

"Micro-Teaching: A New Framework for In-Service Education"

The High School Journal, 49:355-362, May, 1966.

Micro-teaching is the teaching of a limited concept to a small group (1 to 5) in a short period of time (5 to 20 minutes). Micro-teaching can be particularly effective because it provides for immediate criticism of the teaching effort, reinforcement of strengths, and opportunity to correct errors. This method of instruction may also be used to improve teacher and supervisor education and inservice programs. The flexibility of micro-teaching facilitates experimentation with curricular changes, with new media and with methods and materials in inservice settings. (NHT)

Micro-teaching, In-service Training, Small Group Instruction, Evaluation.

Barakat, Halim Isber ED 014 815

Alienation from the School System -- Its Dynamics and Structure

Ann Arbor Michigan: University of Michigan, Institute for Social Research,
1966, 129 p.

Teacher alienation from the school system is viewed as a three-stage process--(1) alienation at the social and normative structure levels, (2) alienation as an attitudinal tendency, and (3) alienation as reflected in behavior. Response data were analyzed from a self-administered questionnaire distributed to all teachers in three senior high schools, three junior high schools, and three elementary schools (total sample size, 237 teachers). Findings generally supported 43 minor hypotheses and confirmed the study's two major hypotheses that system states of both overcontrol and undercontrol result in alienation. On the attitudinal and behavioral level, it was found that feelings of alienation from the school system are reflected in teacher performance. Column percentages and Chi square correlations are tabulated for 53 independent variables, relating teacher alienation to various components of the school system, including the school board, teacher peers, principals, the community, communication patterns, school size, staff cohesiveness, teaching practice, and educational objectives. (JK)

Teacher Alienation, School Systems, Power Structure, Elementary School Teachers, Secondary School Teachers.

Beal, George M., and others ED 011 067

Iowa School Bond Issues, Data Book

Ames, Iowa: Iowa State University of Science and Technology, 1966, 167 p.

Sociological aspects of the processes and relationships between school and community in relation to school bond issues were studied. In the first section, Chapter I attempted to place school bond issues in the general context of educational needs, and Chapter II presented a review of the literature and research studies that have dealt with recommendations and findings related to school bond issue elections. The second section provides a theoretical orientation and describes the sampling and field procedures used in this study. In the third section, data obtained from Iowa school superintendents involved in school bond elections during a 5-year period were analyzed and presented as a data book. Data gathered clearly indicated that superintendents considered cooperative performance between the superintendents and the board of education as more important in passing bond elections than the use of a citizen's advisory committee. (GD)

Bond Issues, Data Collection, School Community Relationship, Board of Education Role, School Superintendent.

Beal, George M., and others ED 016 800

The Decision-Making Process of School Districts Regarding Vocational Education and Training Programs

Ames, Iowa: Iowa State University of Science and Technology, November, 1966, 37 p.

The superintendents of 195 of the 209 school districts holding bond issue elections during a five-year period responded to a questionnaire. Of these, 20 of the 24 whose bond issues involved vocational education were interviewed in a two-phase study to analyze the decision making process, identify the variables associated with success or failure, and recommend strategies relative to bond issue elections for vocational education in Iowa school districts. The percentage of registered voters and communication techniques used were not correlated with election outcome. Economic variables dealing with millage increase and total millage appeared more important than the total amount of the issue in increasing voter turnout. Districts which had passed a bond issue in the five-year period were most likely to pass another presented during the period, and unsuccessful attempts were most likely to be followed by further failures. Little or no association was observed between district demographic characteristics or economic variables and a favorable vote. Superintendents of successful districts evaluated newspaper coverage as more favorable and parent teacher association involvement as more important than did superintendents of unsuccessful ones. Vocational education bond issue proposals did not seem to affect the election outcomes. It was concluded that data collected by the present survey techniques are not sufficient to predict the outcome of school bond issues. This report appears in "Appendix of Final Research Reports for Project in Research and Development in Vocational and Technical Education, Non-Metropolitan Areas " (ED 011 069). (JM)

Vocational Education, School Districts, Bond Issues.

Bitner, William Lawrence DA XXV, 4486

"An Examination of the Organization of American Federation of Teacher Locals in Selected Suburban Communities"

Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, New York University, New York City, New York, 1964, 288 p.

This study was to analyze the organization of the American Federation of Teacher locals in three suburban school districts in Nassau County, New York. This analysis was done by the field study technique in each of the three communities which were investigated. In an effort to understand something of the communities which were investigated, a statistical profile of each of the three school districts was developed. Aside from the fact that all three school districts could be termed as communities which experienced rapid population growth, they appeared to be very similar to other Nassau County districts with reference to income, housing, and education. The history of the teacher union movement in the United States was briefly summarized in order to become more familiar with the organization known as the American Federation of Teachers. The research of the teacher union movement supplies documentary evidence that the American Federation of Teachers has grown in those areas where there has been controversy between teachers and administration or teachers and school boards. These controversies have generally been confined to teacher salaries or to conditions of employment. The actual organization of a teacher union in the districts studied was accomplished without fanfare and may even have gone unnoted had it not been for an inconspicuous, one-paragraph news item which appeared in the local newspapers. The news article commented that a charter had been granted to an A.F.T. local, the first on Long Island. The teachers involved in the initial organization were invited to join the union by other teachers in their own district because it was felt that they would be interested in a union. In none of the districts was a general announcement made to all teachers inviting them to participate in the organization of a union. The initial meetings for all three districts were called by teachers in that district and the meetings were held in teachers' homes rather than in schools. In the initial meetings held in each district, teachers from other Long Island districts were invited to participate and explain how an A.F.T. charter could be obtained. There was no evidence of any representation, at the initial meetings, by organizers from New York City, the Empire State Federation of Teachers, or the national office of the American Federation of Teachers. There was no evidence of financial assistance provided the three locals from any outside group for their initial organization.

Teacher Unions, Teacher Militancy.

Blanke, Virgil E.

"Teachers in Search of Power"

The American School Board Journal, 151: 7-9, November, 1965.

Educational Forum, 30: 231-238, January, 1966.

Six major social forces encourage collective teacher action. (1) National unions give individual teachers collective power. (2) Teachers are alienated by increasing school system size and bureaucratization. (3) Increasing personal insecurity and anxiety among teachers incourages collective action. (4) The public resists increasing taxation for schools. (5) A greater career commitment among teachers is evident. (6) The union movement is recruiting teacher membership. Changes arising from professional negotiations may be constructive. Collective bargaining in education is moving toward models established in the private sector. Basic differences exist between education and industry which make this model unsatisfactory. (SPS)

Labor Unions, Teacher Strikes, Collective Negotiations.

Boyer, Roscoe A. ED 002 935

The Use of Mathematical Programing to Solve Certain Problems in Public School Transportation

University of Mississippi, Bureau of Educational Research, 1961, 77 p.

A program was developed to determine optimal routes for school buses. One of the two models devised in the study, the heuristic model, was a hand procedure based on the assumptiom that, in an efficient school bus system, student miles should be minimized rather than bus miles. The second model, the combinatorial algorithm, was designed to be used with high speed computers. Given a map of a typical school district, six experienced school officers were asked to design school bus routes according to their usual practice. Also, a class of graduate students designed routes for a miniature school district. The heuristic model yielded routes whose bus miles were comparable with those routes designed by experienced designers. A noticeably smaller number of student miles was obtained by the use of the heuristic model. Therefore, it may offer a rapid means of obtaining a reasonably good routing system. The combinatorial algorithm was shown to provide a better solution than either the heuristic model or the graduate student design. The program suggested in this report first generates school bus routes by considering only the number of children (load) and then computing bus and student miles for evaluative purposes. A study is recommended to determine the feasibility of a program that would consider number of students and distances concurrently. (JL)

Mathematical Applications, Programing, Rural School Systems, Bus Transportation, Urban Schools.

Campbell, Stanley Clinton

Relationship Between the Comprehensiveness of School Plant Planning Procedures and the Quality of Resultant School Plants

Madison, Wisconsin: University of Wisconsin, December, 1961, 452 p.

Major conclusions of the study were: (1) A negative relationship was found between the comprehensiveness of planning and juror evaluation of plant quality: two of the three districts which ranked high in planning ranked low in quality, and vice versa. (2) A negative relationship prevailed also between comprehensiveness of planning evaluations of plant quality by teachers, but a positive relationship was found between the planning factor and evaluations of quality by principals. (3) A negative relationship was revealed between comprehensiveness of the building program. It appears that wide participation and prudent selection of survey procedures are more effective in convincing the public of school building needs than the utilization of a large number of survey techniques. (4) A comparison of the extent of teacher participation in planning and their evaluation of plant quality revealed that a positive relationship existed. Teachers who participated to a greater extent in the planning program were more satisfied with the resultant facilities. Responses by teachers revealed that the most serious deficiencies in the new school plant pertained to inadequate control of light, heat, and sound, and lack of flexibility to meet the needs of emerging educational practices. (5) Failure to prepare written educational specifications appears to be the greatest weakness in school plant planning programs. (6) Many complex factors, involving patterns of human relationships are involved in the school plant planning process. Each planning situation is unique, and factors which tend to influence quality tend to vary from one situation to another. (TEJ)

Educational Facilities, Plant Design, Capital Outlay, Educational Environment, School Plant Planning, Educational Specifications.

Carlton, Patrick W. ED 014 801

The Attitudes of Certificated Instructional Personnel Toward Professional Negotiation and "Sanctions"

Eugene, Oregon: University of Oregon, 1967, 227 p.

Based on a 71 percent response from a selected sample of North Carolina principals and teachers (345 male principals, 117 female principals, 399 male teachers, and 388 female teachers), a study was made of educators' attitudes toward three components of collective action -- collective negotiation, sanctions, and strikes. Likert-type scales were developed to measure attitudinal sets of the four groups of educators to each of the three components. Statistical analyses, primarily by two-way analysis of variance and Pearson product-moment correlation, confirmed the study's two major hypotheses -- (1) male educators are more favorably inclined than female educators toward collective teacher action, including negotiations, sanctions, and strikes, and (2) classroom teachers are more favorably inclined than principals toward teacher collective action, including collective negotiations, sanctions, and strikes. Related factors analyzed included the period of educator's residence in the state, educational level, type of school unit in which employed, size of town, length of experience, level at which employed, and level of certification. Analysis indicated a significantly positive relationship between collective negotiations and the philosophical orientation of educators on a progressivism-traditionalism continuum but only minimal correlations of philosophical orientation with sanctions and strikes. (JK)

Teacher Attitudes, Administrator Attitudes, Collective Negotiation, Sanctions, Teacher Strikes.

Carson, Gail

"The Reliability of the Leaderless Group Discussion"

School Business Affairs, 32(11):280-281, November, 1966.

The reliability of a technique for measuring leadership potential, supervisory ability, and interpersonal competence was tested. The technique, as employed by the Los Angeles City School Districts, utilized leaderless discussion groups of six to eight candidates for a particular job. Two or three observers rated the candidates on such items as communicative and social skills, quality of ideas, and leadership possibilities. The results of a study of 15 such groups produced a sufficient number of significant reliability co-efficients to demonstrate the dependability of the technique. It was revealed that the leaderless group discussion technique produced more accurate and consistent results when used with groups of people varying in leadership skills and possessing reasonably high over-all level of ability than when used with groups composed of homogeneous persons of little leadership ability. (GWH)

Groups, Leaderless Groups, Group Discussion, Leadership.

Cave, David Raymond ED 015 520

A Critical Study of the Leader Behavior of School Administrators in Conflict with Teachers' Unions

East Lansing, Michigan: Michigan State University, College of Education, January, 1967, 257 p.

A study of 10 school districts tested the hypothesis that clashes between school administrators and teachers' unions are due largely to conflicting perceptions of the school administrator's leadership behavior as described by the administrator himself, by the school board, and by members of the teachers' union. According to the leader behavior description questionnaire administered, respondents of all three groups defined ideal and real administrators in similar terms on a scale of 12 leader behavior dimensions. Background information was obtained by interviewing questionnaire respondents, labor mediation board members, and university professors. Following Halpin's scheme for measuring leader behavior, quadrant analyses indicated that the six leader behavior dimensions contributing most to conflict were (1) consideration, (2) initiation of structure, (3) integration, (4) demand reconciliation, (5) tolerance of freedom, and (6) production emphasis. Concepts studied were developed from a survey of literature related to leadership, conflict, and conflict resolution. Recommendations included -- (1) study of applicability of the research model for use in educational administration, (2) evaluation of procedures for selection of school administrators with respect to each school's organizational climate, and (3) development of adequate programs for training administrators, with greater emphasis on the behavioral sciences. (JK)

Leadership, Administrative Personnel, Conflict Resolution, Teachers, Unions.

Christrup, Helen J.

"Why Do Government Employees Join Unions?"

Personnel Administration, 29(5):49-54, September-October, 1966.

A survey of employee and management groups was conducted to determine why government employees join unions. Several conclusions can be drawn. Fewer rational contradictions are in evidence if employee satisfaction and dissatisfaction are perceived as ranging along two continua rather than as opposite ends of one continuum. This is in keeping with Herzberg's study. Apparently employees have the capacity to remain loyal to both employers and unions. Workers do not want either group to "take over." In line with the concept of group task and group maintenance as essential aspects of any group, it may be that the combined contribution of employers and unions fulfills group needs better than either do in isolation. (HR)

Job Satisfaction, Job Dissatisfaction, Government Employees, Unions, Group Needs.

Combs, Janet, and William W. Cooley

"Dropouts: In High School and After High School"

American Educational Research Journal, 5:343-364, May, 1968.

Using data from ninth graders in the 1960 Project TALENT testing and a follow-up study conducted in 1964, comparisons were made between high-school dropouts and graduates not entering a four-year or junior college (the controls). Variables used in these comparisons included abilities, interests, self-perceptions, socio-economic environment, activities and plans. The controls scored significantly higher than dropouts on the ability tests. Controls showed higher interest in academic subjects and sports while dropouts expressed greater interest in labor and skilled trades. On the Student Activities Inventory the controls perceived themselves to be more sociable, vigorous, calm, tidy, cultured, self-confident, and mature than did the dropouts who scored higher on leadership and implusiveness. Female controls ranked higher on the socio-economic scale than female dropouts but the differences among boys was not significant. Because of the short period in which controls had been employed after graduation the dropouts were earning as much as the controls and had been earning it longer. At the time the follow-up data were collected, the dropouts were only about 19 years old. Many of the consequences of leaving high school prior to graduation may not become apparent until later in life. (JW)

Dropouts, High School, Project TALENT.

Committee to Study and Assess Practices and Procedures Related to Public School Desegregation and Integration

ED 002 074

Study of Bus Transportation for Relief of Overcrowdedness in the St. Louis Public Schools

St. Louis, Missouri: Board of Education of the City of St. Louis,
May, 1962, 44 p.

Presented is a report on what St. Louis, Missouri, and 15 other cities having more than a 300,000 population are doing with respect to the use of bus transportation in relieving overcrowdedness relative to the process of desegregation and integration of the public schools. The report contains four sections: (1) A brief overview of the problem, its scope, magnitude, and cost, and population shifts which have been principally responsible for the situation, (2) A resume of practices being followed in the day-by-day operation of the program, (3) A digest of the thinking and viewpoints of teachers, principals, parents, and citizens interviewed, and (4) A listing of suggestions and recommendations. Data were collected by visits to other cities and through correspondence.

School Desegregation, School Integration, Bus Transportation, Busing, Overcrowdedness.

Cory, Paul

A Study of the Fire Insurance on Public School Buildings in Florida

Tallahassee, Florida: Florida State University, November, 1962, 159 p.

The collection and analysis of the data include the following findings: (1) Fire insurance on all school buildings of over three classrooms is required by statute. (2) No uniformity of method for obtaining insurance exists in the Florida school system. Thirty percent of the counties use bidding to secure their insurance; 13 counties have 10 policies or more with different insurance companies, with one county using 110 different policies, to cover their insurance needs. (3) Florida's school boards expended $13,345,417 for fire and extended coverage insurance premiums for the 21-year period, 1940-1961, and received benefits totaling $3,254,094 which results in a 24.37 percent cost-loss ratio. (4) The cost-loss ratio for the 10-year period 1951-1961 was 17.6 percent for the public schools as compared with the total of all Florida property insured by all insurance companies cost-loss ratio of 35 percent for the same period. (5) A self-insurance program is feasible with all prerequisites satisfiable. Hypothetical self-insurance plans were developed, based on 80 percent of commercial premium rates which gave an initial 20 percent reduction in premium, also one was developed with a base of 80 percent commercial rate for the first five years, 70 percent for the next five years and 60 percent for the last five years of the 15-year plan. With the reductions in premiums, the accumulation in reserve would amount to $14,000,000 and $12,000,000 respectively. These estimations project annual savings to the school boards of at least $500,000 annually. (TEJ)

Fire Insurance.

Dauw, Dean C.

"Creativity in Organizations"

Personnel Journal, 45(8):465-474, September, 1966.

A review of recent research on training programs and seminars for encouraging creativity in organizations is carefully documented. Dauw concludes that creativity grows out of sensitivity to problems, deficiencies, gaps in knowledge, missing elements, and disharmonies. New solutions are achieved by identifying difficulties, seeking solutions, making guesses, testing hypotheses, and communicating results. He suggests that intelligence quotients are less important to creativity than mental attitudes and habits which include creative skills. He points out that creativity is hard to develop and is easily discouraged. It increases the rate of change and produces obsolescence in men and machines. Success is exciting and may even be intoxicating, but employees lose jobs in the face of rapid change. (CWF)

Creativity, Organizations, Problem Solving, Change.

Dlabal, John J., Jr., and Robert L. Hanson

"What Kind of Teacher for the Culturally Deprived?"

The Elementary School Journal, 67(4):218-223, January, 1967.

The California Psychological Inventory and a personal data sheet developed by the writers were used to test the following hypotheses: (1) No significant difference exists in characteristics of teachers who worked in deprived areas but disliked working there and teachers who enjoyed working with deprived children as determined by the instruments used. (2) No significant difference exists in characteristics of those teachers who enjoy working with culturally deprived children and those that worked in "better" suburban areas as determined by the instruments used. (3) No significant difference exists in characteristics of teachers who had always worked in "better" suburban areas as determined by the instruments used. Three groups of teachers of grades Kindergarten through Grade Six were selected: (A) thirty teachers working successfully with deprived children and enjoy working with them. (B) thirty teachers who were working with deprived children but disliked working with them. (C) thirty teachers who had worked only in "better" suburban schools. Twenty-four variables were used to test the hypotheses. The Wilks-Lambda Discriminate Function Test was used to provide overall test significance and individual "t" tests were used to determine which variable or variables produced significant values. The instruments used detected very few distinguishing characteristics between teachers who enjoyed working with deprived children and those who had worked only in "better" suburban schools. The writers believe that the California Psychological Inventory and the personal data sheet used in the study could be used as a partial basis for selecting teachers to work in deprived areas and suggest that it might also be combined with tests of quality. (RH)

Teacher Characteristics, Culturally Deprived, Urban Schools, Suburban Schools, Teacher Selection, Psychological Testing.

Dodson, Dan W. ED 002 055

"Toward Integration"

The Journal of Educational Sociology, 28: 49-58, October, 1954.

Five studies on integration problems were undertaken at the Center for Human Relation Studies of New York University. One, by Rosner, studied whether a majority of youths, placed in settings in which they were the minority, assumed characteristics of minority behavior. In spite of the general cultural values which give white people status as white, there was evidence that being a minority person in a situation where race was important had its impact upon personality. Self-perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors tended to reverse. An examination was made of the role of the board of education, its use of policy and resources, in implementation of integration in the school district.

Integration Studies, Minority Role, Principles of Integration, School Board Role, Community Role, Integration.

Dost, Jeanne ED 014 153

"Determination of the Location for an Area School"

Paper presented at the Western Regional Science Association meetings (Las Vegas, January 27-29, 1967), 8 p.

Two models are presented to aid planners in selecting the site for an area school which is most efficient in minimizing time and costs of transporting students. The first model deals with the relationship of school site and bus transport problems. Solution to the site problem is found by computing a location coefficient for each potential site using transport inputs and time-distances. The second model provides a solution for the commuter post-secondary educational institution. Economic efficiency of any potential school location site will be dependent upon spatial distribution of students, geographical terrain, urban-rural characteristics of the region, and nature of roads and roadway networks. (HW)

School Location, Models, Student Transportation, Transportation, Educational Planning.

Friedman, Daniel David

"An Analytical Study of Strikes by Public School Teachers in the United States from 1880 to 1964"

Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Columbia University, Teachers College, New York, New York, 1966.

One hundred thirty teacher strikes were listed for the period from 1880 to 1964. Relative frequency has been low. Strikes occurred in 27 states. Duration mean was 6.6 days, and median was four days. Mean staff participation was 560 persons and median was 75: this difference was due primarily to the New York City and Utah strikes. Seventy-seven percent of strikes resulted primarily from wage disputes. Research failed to confirm a significant relationship between teacher strikes and industrial strikes. The study found: (1) Teachers strikes have undergone significant changes in frequency, geographical locus, duration, staff participation and major causes. (2) Strikes tended to recur when major causes were unresolved. (SPS)

Teacher Militancy, Strikes, Labor, Unions, Work Stoppages.

Gamson, William A.

"Reputation and Resources in Community Politics"

The American Journal of Sociology, 72(2):121-131, September, 1966.

This paper focuses on the role of reputational leaders in influencing the outcome of issues in 18 New England communities. When such leaders are both active and united, they are on the winning side three-fourths of the time. This is not merely a function of their participation on the more active side, for they have as high a proportion of victories when they support the less active side. Furthermore, the side supporting change wins only 30 percent of the time without the united support of reputational leaders but two-thirds of the time with it. There seems to be some reality to reputation, and this reality is consistent with a theoretical interpretation of reputation as a resource. (WAG)

Community Leaders, Community Participation, Politics, Community Resources.

Glass, Ronald W. ED 015 298

"Work Stoppages and Teachers -- History and Prospect"

Monthly Labor Review, 90: 43-6, August, 1967.

Teacher's strikes in 1966 resulted in 33 stoppages followed by an additional 11 in the first quarter of 1967. Only 35 such stoppages were recorded in the entire preceding decade. Of the 1966 stoppages, 21 occurred in 10 states, but 12 occurred in Michigan following enactment of the state's Public Employment Relations Act in 1965. In contrast to industrial strikes which typically arise from an impasse in negotiations, many teacher strikes took the form of protests "to" the public or the legislature rather than "against" the school authorities. Major issues included salaries, hours of work, the right to speak collectively, and work conditions. In most salary disputes, the school boards and the public were responsive to the teachers' requests. This large-scale reaction to the right of collective bargaining, along with similar experiences in the private economy, bear out the thesis that, in the short run, more rather than fewer stoppages may result from vigorous and inexperienced response to a new right to bargain collectively. Public school teachers are exceptionally well organized. In March, 1967, the American Federation of Teachers, an affiliate of the AFL-CIO, had approximately 125,000 members, and the National Education Association (NEA) had about one million members. NEA affiliates participated in 11 of the 33 strikes, in 1966, accounting for more than 80 percent of all teachers involved. (ET)

Collective Bargaining, Teacher Strikes, Labor Unions.

Goergen, Joseph Henry, and John
Joseph Keough

DA XXVIII, 3413-A

"Issues and Outcomes of Teachers' Strikes, 1955-1965"

Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, St. John's University, Jamaica, New York, 1967, 252 p.

In 40 teachers' strikes between 1955 and 1965, salary was an issue in 31 of the cases. Issues in the remaining nine strikes were either dismissed personnel or collective bargaining. The researchers found that the strike cases studied fell into patterns of issues and outcomes. A functional relationship existed between certain strike issues and outcomes, and the strike itself. Strikes tended to recur in districts studied, and a geographical pattern to strikes existed. Strikes usually represented teachers' self-interest. While issues and outcomes were identified and categorized by patterns, neither a predictive index nor an index indicative of a hierarchy of values could be established.

Teacher Strikes, Teacher Salaries, Collective Bargaining, Working Conditions, Teacher Militancy.

Goldhammer, Keith, and Frank Farner ED 011 569

The Jackson County Story, A Case Study

Eugene, Oregon: University of Oregon, 1965, 60 p.

This is a factual case study of social change in a large suburban school district experiencing conflict between the school board, the administrative officer of the school system, and the general public during a period of rapid population growth. The study traces the history of various problems arising from rapid population growth and the introduction of curriculum changes faced by Jackson County school boards and school superintendents for a period beginning soon after World War II through the 1963-64 school budget formulation. Similarities between the problems of Jackson County and those of many other areas make this study suitable for graduate seminars and inservice programs. (AL)

Case Studies (Education), Administrative Personnel, Models, Simulation, Change Agents.

Greed, John Thomas, Jr. DA XXVIII, 3414-A

"Attitudes of New Jersey School Board Presidents Toward School Public Relations Policies and Practices"

Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Fordham University, New York, New York, 1967, 120 p.

This study sought to determine the attitudes of New Jersey School Board Presidents toward school public relations policies and practices. The method of summated ratings was utilized in constuction of an attitude inventory. Seventy-six policies and practices, compiled from a review of literature, served as inventory items. Usable responses from 65 percent of the 594 School Board Presidents in the State of New Jersey served as the data for the study. Analysis of variance was employed in determining significant differences in attitudes of Board Presidents toward policies and practices related to community, staff, and students. The same technique was used in determining significant differences in attitudes of Board Presidents with respect to techniques of informing the publics of the board, polling public opinion, and personal interaction of the board with its publics. The data indicated that Board Presidents had attitudes favorable toward school public relations policies and practices. Board Presidents agreed significantly more with policies and practices related to staff than to those related to community, and students. The study revealed that significant differences existed between the means of attitudes toward policies and practices regarding the processes of distributing information, polling opinion, and personal interaction. The Board Presidents agreed significantly more with the process of personal interaction, than to those related to distributing information and polling opinion.

Public Relations, Board of Education Policy, Community Relations, Board of Education Role.

Hartman, John J., and Dorothy N. Bashor ED 015 806

An Analysis of Factors Associated with School Bond Elections in Iowa

Ames, Iowa: Iowa State University of Science and Technology (A paper presented at the Rural Sociological Society Meeting in San Francisco), August 26, 1967, 25 p.

Data were collected from 195 Iowa school districts involved in school bond elections over a five year period and analyzed through the use of a time sequence, social action model. The objective was to determine the relationship between variables of demography, economy, election history, and communication, in addition to the percentage of affirmative votes in school bond elections. Major findings indicate little relationship between school bond election outcome and the traditional techniques (the variables used in this study) presented by educators and reporters as essential in securing school bond passage. It was concluded that the type of community decision making in school bond elections is complex enough to require more precise sociological, social-psychological, and communication theory than was utilized in this study. (ES)

Bond Issues, Elections.

Hickcox, Edward S. ED 012 510

"Power Structures, School Boards, and Administrative Style"

Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (New York City, February 17, 1967), 28 p.

Power structures in different communities vary, and the makeup of school boards and style of superintendents can be viewed as a reflection of these different power relationships. A community may be characterized by (1) a dominated power structure, dominated school board makeup, and servant superintendent style, (2) a factional power structure, factional school board, and political-manipulation superintendent style, (3) a pluralistic power structure, status-congruent school board, and professional-adviser superintendent style, or (4) an inert power structure, sanctioning school board, and decision-maker superintendent style. Nineteen school districts in New York, and two each in Connecticut, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, were selected in which separate interview schedules were administered to superintendents, board members, and community influentials to secure information according to the above classifications. The findings revealed that two types of relationships could be identified between communities, school boards, and superintendents. First, in 11 instances, administrative style was found to be related both to the board makeup and to the community power structure. Second, in seven instances, administrative style was found to be related only to board makeup, or the community power structure and board makeup were consonant but were at variance with administrative style. (GB)

Power Structure, Community, School Superintendents, Boards of Education, School Community Relationship.

Heller, Robert William DA XXV, 4495

"Informal Organization and Perceptions of the Organizational Climate of Schools"

Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Pennsylvania State University, University Park, Pennsylvania, 1964, 184 p.

This study explores the relationship of the informal organization and teacher perceptions of the existing and desired organizational climate of a school. Ten elementary schools located in Pennsylvania participated in the study. Size of school staffs ranged from sixteen to thirty-one; one hundred and twenty-nine staff members were distributed among the ten participating schools. An F-test was used to determine the degree of variance among staff members' perceptions of the existing and desired organizational climates for members of the informal groups as against the amount of variance of perceptions for the total membership of the formal organization. A total of forty informal groups were found within the ten schools, with the number of groups in a school ranging from three to six. Several variables were identified which appeared to be of some importance in determining membership in the informal groups. These variables included: grade level, years in education, years teaching at the school, and sex of the staff members. The evidence indicated that the amount of variance among perceptions of the existing organizational climate held by members of informal groups was not less than the amount of variance of perceptions held by the total membership. Perceptions of the total membership and the informal groups of the desired organizational climate were quite similar. The ten total memberships and thirty-eight of the forty informal groups perceived the desired climate similarly, preferring the "open" climate.

Organizational Climate, Job Satisfaction, Teacher Attitudes, Teacher Personnel.

Hickrod, G. Alan

"Ecological Changes Within a School District and Expenditure for Education"

American Educational Research Journal, 4:241-252, May, 1967.

The effect of change in the level of human and material resources within each of 73 school districts in eastern Massachusetts upon local expenditure for education and local fiscal effort for education was studied. It was concluded that intrametropolitan migration of human resources, particularly of college graduates, had a significant effect upon both expenditure and effort. Growth in certain human resources of a school district appeared to be more important to growth in local expenditure and fiscal effort than growth in property valuation. The ability of conventional state grants-in-aid models to counterbalance intrametropolitan human resources shifts was questioned. (JW)

School Finance, Fiscal Effort, Human Resources.

Hornstein, Harvey A.

"The Effects of Process Analysis and Ties to His Group upon the Negotiator's Attitudes Toward the Outcomes of Negotiations"

The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 2(4):449-463, October-November-December, 1966.

A one-day intergroup conflict laboratory was conducted to investigate the effects of the use of modified "survey feedback" during negotiations. This procedure focused on increasing the negotiators' awareness of the competitive behavior in the negotiations and the distortions in internegotiator perception. The results suggest that mediators and others who seek to intervene between two groups in conflict can use techniques of process analysis, such as survey feedback, to increase the negotiator's positive evaluation of the negotiations and its outcomes. The results also point out that whereas high commitment to one's own group and its initial position in the negotiations will tend to mitigate the cooperation-inducing effects of this procedure, high satisfaction with one's role in the home group will tend to enhance them. It was suggested that high commitment leads one to a state of "insulated ignorance," in which one is protected from examining his own behavior, and the other's perceptions and feelings, through conviction in the superiority of his own group's proposal and its inevitable success. High satisfaction with role, on the other hand, leads one to feel freer to deviate from his group's position. (HAH)

Process Analysis, Collective Negotiations, Group Conflict, Feedback, Mediators, Role Satisfaction.

Isaacs, Alan S., and Murray Simon ED 010 428

The Analysis and Development of a Semi-Automated Bus Utilization Scheduling System

Suffern, New York: Rockland Community College, 1966, 163 p.

Investigation and research for an automated, bus utilization and scheduling system was reported. The development of this system would involve (1) program design and computer selection, (2) coding of the supervisor program and related programs, (3) program checkout, (4) data conversion, (5) system verification, and (6) final documentation, including detailed program documents and the user's manual presenting system concepts, machine specifications, and operational procedures. A system design and operational program flow was incorporated in the report. The project was not completed because of insufficient time. (GC)

Bus Transportation, Computer Programs, Scheduling, Programing, Program Development.

5

Jensen, Arthur R.

"Social Class, Race and Genetics: Implications for Education"

American Educational Research Journal, 5:1-43, January, 1968.

Present educational practices have proved unsuccessful in providing a segment of our population with the knowledge and skills needed for economic self-sufficiency in an increasingly technological society. Literal equality of educational opportunity will fall short of solving this problem. Failure to give due weight to the biological basis of individual and group differences in educationally relevant traits and abilities (some of the evidence for which is reviewed in this paper), in addition to social-environmental factors, may hinder efforts to discover optimal instructional procedures suited to a wide range and diversity of abilities. Inappropriate instructional procedures, often based on the notion that all children learn in essentially the same way except for easily changed environmental influences, can alienate many children from ever entering upon any path of educational fulfillment.

Instruction, Compensatory Education, Individual Differences, Group Differences, Environment.

Johns, Roe L., and Ralph B. Kimbrough

The Relationship of Socioeconomic Factors, Educational Leadership Patterns, and Elements of Community Power Structure to Local School Fiscal Policy

Washington: U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, May, 1968 (Final Report Project Number 2842).

This is a fundamental study of critical factors affecting local educational decision-making on school fiscal policy. It brought together in one design methods of investigating the interrelationships of socioeconomic factors, educational leadership and community power structure and the relationship of these factors to local financial effort in relation to ability. The study included 122 school districts of 20,000 population and above located in the states of Florida, Georgia, Kentucky and Illinois. Twenty-four districts, six from each state, representing an equal number of high and low effort districts were selected for intensive study. Twelve major hypotheses were tested. These hypotheses dealt with consistency of local school fiscal policy; the relationship of socioeconomic factors and typology of community power structures to effort; the characteristics of community influentials and voter behavior in competitive and noncompetitive power structures; and other important topics. Following are a few of the principal findings: Most school districts followed consistently high or low effort patterns throughout the eighteen years studied; there was no consistent relationship of socioeconomic factors to financial effort; low financial effort districts tended to have noncompetitive power structures; low effort, noncompetitive districts tended to have closed social systems with less politically active voters.

Community Power Structure, Educational Leadership, Local Financial Effort, Voter Behavior.

Kerlinger, Fred N.

"Attitudes Toward Education and Perceptions of Teacher Characteristics: A Q Study"

American Educational Research Journal, 3(3):159-168, May, 1966.

What are the relations between attitudes toward education and perceptions of desirable traits of teachers? In order to answer this question, two hypotheses were tested. The first and more important hypothesis is that perceptions of the traits of effective teachers are in part a function of attitudes toward education. Specifically, judges with "progressive" attitudes toward education will choose traits congruent with "progressive" educational beliefs. Conversely, judges with "traditional" attitudes toward education will choose traits congruent with "traditional" educational beliefs. It was also hypothesized that at least two factors underlay the perceptions of the effective teacher. Two Q-Sorts were devised. The QED measured attitudes toward education and the TCQ (Teacher Characteristics Q Sort) measured perceptions (or definitions) of the effective teacher. Thirty-six judges representing professors of education, and teachers from elementary, secondary, parochial and military schools responded to the two Q-Sorts. The results supported both hypotheses, namely that progressive judges define the "good" teacher as possessing progressive traits and traditional judges feel that "good" teachers should be "traditional." The two underlying factors appear to be related to two of Ryan's three characteristics of teachers. (JGC)

Attitudes, Teacher Attitudes, Teacher Characteristics, Educational Attitudes.

Klein, S. M., and J. R. Maher

"Education Level and Satisfaction with Pay"

Personnel Psychology, 19(2):195-208, Summer, 1966.

Two subjective estimates were used as operational measures of expectations in studying the relationship between education and satisfaction with pay: (1) the probability of securing a comparable salary elsewhere; and (2) the probability of a higher salary on the present job. A questionnaire was used with 727 managers. Five variables included: (1) satisfaction with pay; (2) education; (3) perceived probability of comparable salary elsewhere; (4) perceived probability of more money on the present job; (5) age and skill level. The college educated group was less satisfied than the noncollege group on both pay items. This persisted when age and skill level were controlled. Satisfaction was greater when the individual thought the possibility of higher pay on his present job was good. College graduates, however, were more optimistic about getting a similar salary elsewhere, but less optimistic about more salary on their present job. (HR)

Educational Level, Job Satisfaction, Salary.

Knowles, Laurence W.

"What Schools Do About Student Marriages"

Nation's Schools, 77(4):61-64, 76, April, 1966.

Knowles discusses the legality and constitutionality of various boards of education rulings pertaining to married high school students. Two courts have ruled that it is not within the discretionary powers of local boards to expel students because they are married. The courts are divided on the question of temporary suspension because of marriage. There have been no test cases on whether or not school officials may transfer married, students to an adult or evening program, although evidence suggests that this kind of ruling would be upheld. The courts have upheld the power of school authorities to deny married students the opportunity to participate in extra-curricular activities, even when the cases involve "star atheletes whose chances for college scholarships would be seriously jeopardized if they were excluded from competitive sports." (CH)

School Board Policy, Court Cases, Married Students, School Policy, Suspension.

Knowles, Laurence W., and W. Scott Thomson ED 010 268

Historical Developments Affecting American Educational Processes

Louisville, Kentucky: University of Louisville, School of Law, 1967, 152 p.

The study dealt with the constitutional rights and responsibilities of students, teachers, and school administrators. Questionnaires (1,000) were mailed to a national sample of school districts. The final sample group consisted of 350 usable responses. Personal interviews supplemented the questionnaires. The major topics of inquiry were (1) freedom of speech and right of assembly, (2) crime investigation, (3) religion, (4) student marriages, (5) student health, and (6) expulsion of students. The authors recommended that (1) school administrators be furnished instruction in the implications of constitutional law and be provided handbooks of guidelines and recent court decisions, and that (2) school regulations be reviewed periodically by legal counsel. (JK)

Constitutional History, Equal Protection, Court Doctrine, Administrator Responsibility, School Policy, Court Litigation.

Lankton, Robert S.

"Teacher Enthusiasm Counts More Than Materials in Teaching Reading"

Nation's Schools, 81:60-61, February, 1968.

A Detroit project with five- and six-year-old inner-city pupils was designed to test six different systems of teaching reading to see which, if any, were most effective. No one method appeared best. Even though intelligence and sex affect achievement more definitely than method, there seems to be an advantage in the addition of "something else" to the basal reading. Teacher enthusiasm for some kind of augmentation by means of phonics, writing stories, pupil research activities in social studies and science, individual interest reading, and so on, seems to increase learning in reading skills for both boys and girls. If the cycle of problems which beset the disadvantaged child is to be broken, perhaps the selection of materials is not the place to begin. Inordinate amounts of time spent by school staffs in selecting materials may be better employed in identifying and recruiting effective teachers.

Teacher Personnel, Urban Schools.

LaPlant, James Clayton ED 013 499

"School District Innovativeness and Expectations for the School Board Role"

Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (New York, February 18, 1967), 11 p.

A study of 12 Wisconsin school districts measured the relationship between the extent of innovativeness exhibited in school districts and the degree of consensus of expectations for the school board role within and between groups of citizens, teachers, elected municipal officials, and school board members. Measures of innovativeness included (1) number of educational innovations adopted, (2) relative earliness of such adoptions, and (3) rate of spread of the innovations within the district. Interviews to determine consensus were made of random samples of the following groups -- 1794 citizens, 240 teachers, 183 elected officials, 90 board members, and 12 superintendents. Interviews to determine innovativeness were held jointly with the superintendent of schools and another administrator. Although no data are included, general support and rejection are reported for eight interrelated hypotheses. The study concludes that a school district's innovativeness is positively related to the amount of agreement between citizens and teachers regarding their expectations for the school board role. Districts with high agreement between external and internal segments will adopt more innovations at an earlier date than districts lacking this agreement. (JK)

School Districts, Educational Innovation, Board of Education Role.

Lipham, James M., and others ED 016 280

The School Board as an Agency for Resolving Conflict

Madison, Wisconsin: University of Wisconsin, August, 1967, 198 p.

Viewing administration as a social process, a three-year study was made of the role of the school board as an agency for resolving conflict between the school and the community. Role expectations for the school board were assessed by interviewing 1,794 citizens, 240 teachers, 183 public officials, and 90 school board members in 12 Wisconsin school districts selected on the basis of their size, wealth, non-public school enrollment, community controversy, and fiscal dependence-independence. Conflict resolution was assessed by observing school boards during the budget adoption process. Analysis indicated that consensus in role expectations for the school board and resolution of school board role conflict were not related either to change in financial support for the schools or to change in allocations to selected budget categories. Consensus in expectations within and between certain reference groups, especially citizens and teachers, was found to be significantly related to the level of financial support and the nature of budget allocations. School boards tended to engage in role avoidance, seldom resolved conflict in open meetings, tended to be intra-organizationally oriented on educational issues, and were extra-organizationally oriented on economic issues. (JK)

Conflict Resolution, School Community Relationship, Board of Education Role, Financial Support, Budgeting.

Lipham, James M., and others ED 011 399

Expectations for the School Board Role

Madison, Wisconsin: University of Wisconsin, January, 1967, 31 p.

Within 12 Wisconsin school districts, the following groups provided data in an investigation of the expectations for the school board role -- (1) 1,794 citizens, (2) all mayors, city managers or village presidents, city or village councilmen, and township chairmen within each district, (3) 20 randomly selected teachers from each district, and (4) all school board members. Only a sample of findings was reported, as total results of the study were to be presented in August, 1967. Demographic variables, personal characteristics of the board members, religious and political party affiliation, and socioeconomic status were found to be associated with the kind of expectations held for the school board members. When considering the four group classification variables, the school board member group tended to attach less importance to their decision-making role than did the other three groups. All groups, except the public officials, viewed the school board member as a more important official than a city council member. Specific findings revealed that a majority of the total respondents felt that (1) the board should alert citizens of items to be covered at coming meetings, (2) school board members should be elected at large, (3) the board should be organized into subcommittees, and (4) board members should be paid a salary. Whereas a majority of citizens, public officials, and teachers felt the school board should seek federal aid, only 19 percent of the school board members felt likewise. (GB)

Board of Education Role, Educational Programs, Opinions, School District Spending.

Lippitt, Ronald, and others ED 012 503

A Comparative Analysis of the Research Utilization Process

Excerpts from a symposium at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (Chicago, February 18, 1966), 28 p.

A Suggested model for adequate dissemination of research findings considers four primary barriers to effective communication -- (1) division of personnel labor into task roles, (2) institutional distinctions, (3) development of professional reference groups, and (4) geographical divisions. Suggested solutions include linking systems and roles, specialized communications media, and the development of new inclusive systems which would enable researchers and practitioners to be parts of the same organization. Through land-grant, college extension programs and the county agent plan, agriculture serves as a model for inclusion of basic and applied research in a common system with agricultural practitioners. Medicine serves similarly as a professional model. Six major differences distinguish educational research from research in agriculture and medicine -- (1) teacher performance is a key variable, (2) adoption of a new practice usually involves change in certain central characteristics of the practitioner, (3) adoption requires greater adaptation and the development of an interpersonal support system as a crucial part of the dissemination process, (4) teachers have less motivational support to improve practices and less cognitive perspective on alternatives, (5) criteria are lacking for measuring resultant productivity, and (6) practitioners have little respect for resource teams and research centers. (JK)

Research Utilization, Educational Research, Models, Communication Problems, Adoption (ideas).

McCarty, Donald J. ED 010 711

Myths and Reality in School Board Research

Paper presented for presentation at the Annual Conference of the American Educational Research Association (Chicago, February 17, 1966), 16 p.

Research is presented to test a model which correlates types of school leadership and community power structure with the system of education. Interviewers gathered data from 23 boards of education in New York. Three professional judges independently classified each board according to the following three-part model -- (1) The community power structure was either dominated (elite), factional, pluralistic, or inert, (2) The school boards were either dominated, factional, status congruent, or sanctioning, and (3) The role of the superintendent was either servant, political manipulator, professional adviser, or decision maker. The data show that a board of education exhibits the same type of power structure as its community, and the superintendent's role is a direct function of both. A dominated community structure results in a dominated board which causes the superintendent to assume the role of servant. This model is helpful in analyzing the following causations in the decision-making process -- (1) Dominated boards turn to one member for decisions, (2) Factional boards depend upon the majority for decisions, (3) Status congruent boards depend upon extensive discussion, and (4) Sanctioning boards depend upon the recommendation of the superintendent. An interviewer report of one of the 23 boards of education studied is appended.

Superintendent Role, Boards of Education, Community Role, Power Structure.

McCarty, Donald J., and Charles E. Ramsey ED 014 130

The Role of the Chief School Administrator

Ithaca, New York: Cornell University, May, 1967, 190 p.

A conceptual model for studying the operation of social power in school systems was developed on the assumption that a school system must be understood in terms of its supporting environment. Twelve directional hypotheses were tested to determine correlations between four types of community power structures (dominated, factional, pluralistic, and inert), four kinds of school boards (dominated, factional, status congruent, and sanctioning), and four kinds of superintendent's roles (functionary, political strategist, professional advisor, and decision maker). Findings generally supported the study's major theses of a positive correlation between similar types of communities and school boards and a diverse set of relationships between kinds of superintendent's roles, when correlated with types of communities and school boards. Data for chi square analysis were obtained by means of focused interviews and tape recorded research conducted in 51 communities in the Northeast and Midwest representing 11 large urban communities (above 25,000 population), 14 small urban (2500-24,999), 10 suburban, and 16 rural (under 2500). Two specific recommendations were formulated from the study to reduce the school superintendent's vulnerability to short term demands -- (1) the school superintendent should be given at least a three-year contract renewable annually, and (2) state departments of education should assume responsibility for the management of schools at the local level. (JK)

School Superintendents, Community Influence, Power Structure, Superintendent Role, Boards of Education.

McMahon, Clara P., and Samuel Strauss ED 016 296

The Public Image of Education in Maryland (Final Report)

Baltimore, Maryland: Johns Hopkins University, August, 1967, 107 p.

Questionnaire responses from 896 community leaders (55 percent of total sample of 1,643), representing 11 groups concerned with education in Maryland, were statistically analyzed to determine how community leaders view the public schools, what they consider the desirable goals and major problems of the schools and how well they are being met, and how they believe schools can meet future demands and rising costs. Respondents included state legislators, local political officials, boards of education, school superintendents, classroom instructors, PTA presidents, businessmen, industrialists, labor and farm leaders, women's club officers, and communications media representatives. Through an analysis of returns by groups, occupations, geographic regions, community activities and interests, school backgrounds, and evaluations of school performance, the study concluded that community leaders are sympathetically interested in the public schools, show high agreement on particular issues, and place heavy emphasis on intellectual training, raising teacher status, smaller classes, individual attention, better counseling, challenging students to meet their potentials, updating vocational training, improving school communications, and more state aid. (JK)

School Community Relationship, Community Attitudes, Community Leaders, Public Opinion, Public Schools.

Mahan, Thomas W.

"Bused Negro Pupils Have Little Trouble Fitting into Suburban Schools"

Nation's Schools, 81:58-59, February, 1968.

Project Concern in Hartford, Connecticut focused on change in bused pupils' perception which can be accomplished by confrontation with experiences highly charged with novelty but also in a context of interpersonal support. The two year project involved 255 pupils in grades K-5. The evaluation design examined the relative impact of four methodologies on the learning, attitudes and motivations of inter city youth: experimentals' placement in an inner city school with and without supportive team assistance (each supportive team consisted of an inner city mother and a Negro teacher), and controls' placement in a suburban system with and without supportive team assistance. Evaluative criteria consisted of mental ability, academic achievement, personal-social development, and creativity. Preliminary results indicate that children placed in the suburban schools were highly motivated and improved their academic performance. Average daily attendance improved, more than 90 percent of the families participated in at least one school activity and experimental pupils have been well accepted.

Desegregation, Busing, Compensatory Education, Pupil Achievement, School Community Relations.

Milton, G. A.

"Group vs. Individual Problem-Solving and Decision-Making"

Canadian Public Administration, 8(3):301-306, September, 1965.

Three questions were asked: (1) Will more decisions and solutions be produced by a group or by individuals? (2) Why are group processes so enthusiastically supported? (3) Which condition produces the more effective decision? It was hypothesized that individual processes are superior to group processes on intellectual problem-solving and decision-making tasks, but group procedures are perceived by members to be superior because each member feels he is participating in and contributing to a group effort. The experiment involved 48 administrators -- 24 working in groups of four and 24 working as individuals on the same problem. The conclusions were that individuals produce more solutions and effective decisions than groups but group processes produce greater enthusiasm for a task because of members' feelings of accomplishment in the group. The decision whether to use group or individual procedures would seem to depend upon the purpose of the activity. Group processes may be more effective for non-intellectual responses, but individual processes are markedly superior for problem-solving and decision-making. (AFB)

Groups, Problem-solving, Decision-making.

National School Board Association ED 012 966

"Methods of School Board Selection"

The National School Boards Association Information Service Bulletin, Volume 5, Number 5, Evanston, Illinois: National School Boards Association, July, 1967.

Selection of school board members is governed in all states by law. Surveys show that 33 states elected all board members by popular vote. In nine states, most board members were elected. However, in large cities boards were more often appointive. Eighty-five percent of the boards in the U.S. were elected, 70 percent in nonpartisan elections. Over 90 percent of the elected boards were located in the northeastern, north central, and western states. Most appointive boards were concentrated in the large cities of Georgia, Maryland, North Carolina, Tennessee, and Virginia. Nationally, about 14 percent of the boards were appointed. Of these, 27 percent were located in cities over 300,000. Administrators differ as to the best method of board selection, and research has not supported another method. The elective method insures continued public interest and involvement, greater intimacy with the public, and harmonious relations between boards and professional staff. The appointive method insures greater selectivity of board members, more harmonious relations between boards and governing bodies, and greater stability and continuity of membership. Elective membership tends to become partisan, whereas appointive membership tends to become dictatorial. Such limitations can be overcome best by a caucus composed of all concerned persons. (JN)

Boards of Education, Selection, Board Candidates, Methods, Elections.

Perkins, James A., and others ED 011 693

School Boards and School Board Membership, Recommendations and Report of a Survey

Albany, New York: New York State Advance Committee on Educational Leadership, 77 p.

The characteristics of New York State school boards and their members were investigated, and a differentiation made between effective and ineffective boards. Twenty-seven school districts, stratified by region and effectiveness, were included in the sample. Interviews and questionnaires were used to obtain data from all current board members, two of the most recently retired board members, and the presidents of teachers' and parents' organizations. Four separate criteria were used to assess the effectiveness of each school board -- (1) a subjective rating by educators, (2) a subjective rating by the interviewers, (3) an objective comparison with similar school districts on per pupil expenditures for instructional services, and (4) an objective comparison with like school districts on the level of local financial effort for education. A school board ranked as effective on two of the four criteria and average on the other two was considered effective. The findings revealed -- (1) board members tended to be middle aged, financially and occupationally above average, well-educated, male, Protestant, and Republican, (2) members of effective boards were financially more successful, were better educated and of higher occupational status, and had longer board experience than members of ineffective boards, and (3) effective boards were located in larger and wealthier districts, were more likely to use formal nominating committees to select and recruit new board members, and more often assisted new board members in learning their job than ineffective boards. (GB)

Boards of Education, Board of Education Policy, Board of Education Role, School Superintendents.

Purdy, Ralph D. ED 016 541

"Forces Affecting Local District Reorganization"

Journal on State School Systems Development, 1:85-91, Summer, 1967.

While there are no universal standards for school districts reorganization, some empirical data are available for planning local district structures. Two separate approaches seem to be developing within the various states: One is the formation of local school districts of sufficient size to meet educational needs of all children. The other is to make local school districts as large as practicable but to allocate high cost and specialized functions to some type of regional agency. Although school district reorganization is needed in several sections of the country, there are many counterforces which tend to impede progress in this area. (ES)

School District Reorganization, Planning School District Structure, Educational Cooperative.

Ramstad, William K.

"The President: A Key to Innovation"

Junior College Journal, 37(2):30-31, October, 1966.

Relationships were examined in public junior colleges between the adoption or nonadoption of five types of staff utilization programs and three groups of variables: (1) five descriptive statistics of the participating colleges, (2) six situational factors, and (3) nine attitudinal responses of the administrator toward the staff utilization program. Questionnaire responses were received from the chief administrative officers of 233 public junior colleges in the United States. The study hypothesized that the personal attitude of the chief administrative officer toward experimental programs in public junior colleges was the single most important factor in the process of adoption or nonadoption of such programs. This hypothesis was substantiated for four of the five experimental staff utilization programs when a higher correlation was found between nonadoption and the attitude reported by the chief administrator toward the innovation than between nonadoption and a situational variable. A multiple regression analysis reinforced the findings of a factor analysis. Ramstad concluded that although situational factors occasionally serve as predictors for the adoption of experimental programs, the personal attitude of the chief administrative officer was the most important single factor to be considered. (FW)

Innovation, Junior Colleges, Administrator Attitudes.

Ranney, David C.

"The Determinants of Fiscal Support for Large City Educational Systems"

Administrator's Notebook, 15(4), December, 1966.

The objective of this study was to analyze governmental and socio-economic forces which are presently shaping educational policy in our cities. Only school systems in the largest cities in America (over 300,000) were included in the sample. In addition, two internal environmental factors were considered: (1) the "municipal overburden" problem, and (2) the impact of suburban school systems' expenditures on the central city schools. The findings of the analysis indicated that independence or dependence of school government did not appear to be an important variable in the explanation of central city educational fiscal levels measured in per student or per capita terms. However, the educational fiscal level of school systems outside the city was an extremely important variable affecting fiscal levels in central cities. State aid likewise was found to be an important determinant of educational fiscal behavior. Other important relationships emerged from the study; the major implication of these relationships was that central city school systems need far greater resources than are now available. (WKH)

School Finance, Urban Schools, Large City Governments, Socio-economic Factors, Suburban Schools, Fiscal Independence, Fiscal Dependence, State Aid.

Reid, J. Christopher,
and MacLennan, Donald W.

ED 015 673

Research in Instructional Television and Film, (Office of Education Report no. OE-34041).

Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1967.

This document includes abstracts of 350 experiments in instructional television and instructional film since 1950. Each abstract describes the problem, sample, subject taught, key variables, and criterion instruments. Reliability and validity data, and statistics, when available, are also given. The introduction reviews research trends. Author and subject indexes are also included.

Abstracts, Experiments, Instructional Films, Instructional Television, Literature Reviews.

Rock, William C.

"Busing Negro Students Doesn't Hurt Their Performance"

Nation's Schools, 81:56-64, February, 1968.

The purpose of this project was to increase intercultural understanding among racially imbalanced schools, improve educational opportunities, and demonstrate a metropolitan approach to the problem of racial imbalance. In September, 1965, 25 first graders from a predominantly Negro school were sent to six white schools in Rochester, New York. The 25 students were selected randomly from a group of average, or above average, intelligence. Training sessions were conducted for teachers in the receiving schools in preparation for the new experience. In 1966, 25 additional first graders entered the program and the original group moved to the second grade in the white schools. The achievement of the transferred pupils is approximately equal to and, in some cases, higher than what would be expected if the pupils had remained in the original school. On three subtests (Language, Perception, Reading Comprehension, and Reading Vocabulary) the transferred pupils did significantly better than a control group who remained in the original school. Sociometric data indicated that most of the transferred pupils adjusted well to the school situation and were well received by their white classmates.

Busing, Desegregation, Pupil Achievement.

Rosenthal, Robert

"How Well Students Do Depends on How Well Teachers Expect Them to Do"

Nation's Schools, 81:57-58, February, 1968.

Flanagan's Test of General Ability (a test designed to predict intellectual growth) was administered to all children in a single California elementary school. Children were assigned to experimental classes randomly but teachers were told that all children in their classes would show unusual intellectual gains. For the school as a whole, children from whom teachers had been led to expect greater gains showed significantly greater gains in IQ score (12.2) than did the control children (8.4). The difference among first graders was 24.8 for experimental pupils compared with 16.2 for control pupils. Among second graders the difference was 18.2 compared with 4.3. These findings lend weight to the need for positively-oriented teachers and for in-service education programs designed to help teachers become more positive in attitudes toward pupils.

Teacher Attitudes, Pupil Achievement.

Rosica, Thomas

"Smaller Classes, Consultant Teachers Boost Reading, Arithmetic Scores"

Nation's Schools, 81:59-60, February, 1968.

The Educational Improvement Program sought to improve reading and arithmetic achievement and enlarge the cultural horizons and aspirations of disadvantaged children in Philadelphia. In 1963, a program was introduced to first grade students attending predominantly Negro schools in impoverished areas. The average class size was cut to 31. Each class was taught by a fully qualified teacher. Classroom aides were allocated at a rate of one for each four classes and one consulting teacher was allocated for each ten regular teachers. Comparisons between children involved in the improvement program and those not involved showed that the improvement program children scored significantly higher in reading, spelling, and arithmetic. Less improvement when the program was enlarged the second year indicated that the quality of the program was not maintained when additional personnel were employed.

Compensatory Education.

Schnaufer, Pete ED 011 519

The Uses of Teacher Power

Chicago, Illinois: American Federation of Teachers, March, 1966, 32.p.

The uses of teacher power in influencing the work conditions, rewards, and activities of teachers are discussed. The strengths, weaknesses, and appropriate uses of various tactics for the exercise of this power are described. Particular attention is given to sanctions, strikes, injunctions, and mass resignations. Picketing, school board elections, sit-ins, and packing a board meeting room are also mentioned. Appendix tables contain information on work stoppages among teachers (number of stoppages, number of workers involved, number of idle man-days) each year during the 1940-1965 period. (HA)

Collective Bargaining, Contract Salaries, Employer Employee Relationship, Professional Negotiations, Teacher Conditions.

Schneider, Erwin H., and Henry L. Cady ED 010 298

Evaluation and Synthesis of Research Studies Relating to Music Education

Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, College of Education, 1965,
632 p.

Music education research data for the years 1930 through 1962 were brought together and evaluated. A compilation process produced 1,150 information items, considered to constitute all possible music education research data completed during the subject time period. Of these total items, 273 are abstracted and many others listed in the report. Research findings in the data were synthesized according to specific areas of function and methodology. Findings were analyzed for implications for current practice and needed research in the music education field. (JH)

Music Education, Research, Curriculum.

Scribner, Jay D. ED 010 911

A Systems Analysis of School Board Action

Paper presented at The American Education Research Association (Chicago, February 17, 1966), 12 p.

The basic assumption of the functional-systems theory is that structures fulfill functions in systems and that subsystems operate separately within any type of structure. Relying mainly on Gabriel Almond's paradigm, the author attempts to determine the usefulness of the functional-systems theory in conducting empirical research of school boards. All school boards have four universal qualities -- equilibrium, interdependence, comprehensiveness, and boundary. Demands and supports (inputs) reflecting the wants and desires of concerned individuals are made to the school board. The acceptance or rejection of any input at a school board meeting is determined by communication. The political functions of rule making, application, and adjudication complete the conversion process, and outputs (policy determination) result. By using content analysis to test the applicability of the systems approach to school board research, the author finds that extractive demands are more prevalent, and output totals correspond closely with input totals. Although some concepts are unverified, the functional-systems approach seems to improve researchers' understanding of the school board function.

Systems Analysis, Systems Concepts, Boards of Education.

Shaw, Alvie L. ED 015 551

An Analysis of the Position of Research Director in the Public School Systems Throughout the Fifty States

Denver, Colorado: University of Denver, August, 1967, 23 p.

The purpose of this study was to determine (1) the requirements for position of research director in public school systems, (2) distinguishing characteristics of the research director position, and (3) the nature of the job. A review of the literature provided the basis for the construction of a questionnaire sent to 214 school districts with student enrollments of more than 12,000. One hundred sixty-eight usable responses were received. Some of the more notable findings included -- (1) the master's degree was the most common degree requirement, (2) a high percentage of school districts did not have major or minor field requirements, (3) the superintendent of schools was the immediate supervisor of the research director in 56.5 percent of the school districts, (4) the research director directly supervised personnel in 80.9 percent of the districts, and (5) the major areas of responsibility of the research director were in the areas of evaluation of experimental programs, surveys, reports, evaluation of projects funded by the federal government, consultant services, and testing. (HW)

Public School Systems, Research Directors, Administrator Qualifications, Occupational Information, Educational Researchers.

Snow, R. J. ED 012 507

"Community Resources and Conflict Propensity as Sources for Constraints on the Local School Administrator"

Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (New York City, February 18, 1967).

To determine the extent to which school system environments may be distinct in terms of community resources and conflict propensity, the voting records, socioeconomic data, and aspects of board of education interaction with school superintendents of four suburban Illinois communities were analyzed. A comparison of constraints and supports for the four communities indicated a higher degree of school superintendent leadership in the district with the most abundant resources and conflict management skill. This was evidenced by a representative community caucus enjoying broad support for the school program and entrusting educational decision making to the school superintendent. Differential manifestations of superintendent administrative ability and varying degrees of success achieved in school-community relations for the four communities were briefly reviewed. (JK)

School Superintendents, Conflict, School Community Relationship, Superintendent Role, Boards of Education.

Tennis, Mel

"Cross-Instruction in Language Arts Improves Spelling and Vocabulary"

Nation's Schools, 81:63, February, 1968.

Special teachers working with regular classroom teachers in teams and with special materials to provide multisensory experiences in the language arts can bring about positive gains in spelling and vocabulary. In Dade County, Florida, elementary schools serving many disadvantaged children, Project Language Arts provided 124 special teachers and materials to support a total language program (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). These first through sixth grade teachers worked as team leaders, with regular classroom teachers sharing instructional responsibilities, to provide multisensory experiences built around social studies, science, or literature concepts. Each of the classes was divided into special need groups with a master teacher for oral language development, reading instruction, and composition. Emphasis was placed upon concept formation and language learning. Test results showed gains in spelling and vocabulary, and the project was ranked as excellent by teacher and administrator evaluators. This approach involves flexible grade organization and redeployment of staff. It also requires devoting considerable time and effort to planning staff activities and explaining carefully to parents the nature and purpose of the project.

Language Arts, Team Teaching.

Tharp, Charles D. ED 002 736

Learning and Instructional Resources Center

Coral Gables, Florida: University of Miami, March, 1963, 21 p.

A description is given of the inception, objectives, operation, equipment and personnel of the Learning and Instructional Resources Center of the University of Miami. The Center was built in an octagonal shape. Eight 300-seat classrooms were placed around a central core containing projection equipment. Wedge-shaped classrooms were designed to allow students' eyes to follow a natural focus to the apex, where the projection screen, the lecturer's podium, and the demonstration table were located. Classrooms were equipped with the latest lighting, projection facilities, teaching aids, language translation facilities, electronic pointers, and audiovisual equipment and materials. The design and concentration of equipment in the Center provided an opportunity for the study of problems plaguing educational television. An electronic feedback system was instituted to aid in researching questions about the medium. An easily operated and concealed response station was installed at each seat; chart recorders kept a permanent record of class responses for analysis after a lecture. The charts were compared with the original lecture delivery by simultaneous playback with a recorded videotape.

Instructional Resource Center, Educational Television, Audiovisual Aids, Teaching Aids, Buildings and Equipment, Planning.

Thorson, John R. ED 012 964

"Expectations for the School Board Role and Financial Support of the Schools"

This study examined relationships in selected school systems between (1) level of expectations for financial aspects of school board role and level of local financial support for schools, and (2) level of expectations for selected expenditures and allocation of expenditures by school board. Rationale for this investigation stemmed from role theory concerning conflict in expectations and research concerning position of the school board in society. Among the conclusions were: 1. Holding preferences for particular school programs and being willing to pay for them may not be the same. 2. There may be a difference between responding favorably toward financial support for schools in an interview, and an actual financial commitment for them. 3. Expectations for expenditures may not exist as a single identifiable concept. There appears to be no "all-out" support for schools, but citizens seem to discriminate between what they will support. 4. The lack of a consistent relationship between the major variables suggests two possibilities: (a) there is a lack of preception by board members of outside expectations for the school board role, or (b) financial decisions are not effectively within the control of the local school board, and are therefore not really controlled by expectations held by local citizens.

Board of Education Role, Financial Support.

Van Zwall, James A.

"Classroom Size Standards Shrinking"

The American School Board Journal, 153:57-58, September, 1966.

This is a report of studies on classroom area per pupil conducted by graduate students at the University of Maryland. It was hypothesized, "that research ought to relate area per pupil to learning factors." Following 23 pilot studies, three doctoral researches were conducted: two of the doctoral studies were experimental. The third study was based on an historical comparison of paired youths whose entire elementary school experience had been in "small" and "large" classrooms. Research findings gave no indication that instruction had been facilitated by an increase in classroom area per pupil. Perhaps more important than the specific findings of the three studies is the demonstration that experimental research can be used in the development of objective standards for school buildings. (GWH)

Classroom Size, School Buildings, Instruction, Pupil Area.

Wildman, Wesley A. ED 011 701

The Nature and Dynamics of Teacher Organization-School Administration Negotiating Activities and Their Impact on School Administration

Fayetteville, Arkansas: University Council for Educational Administration (University of Arkansas, College of Education), 1966, 20 p.

Seventy percent response to a survey of the nation's 6,000 largest school systems (1963-64 enrollment of 1,200 or more) indicated that 45 percent of the districts acknowledged a formal relationship between teacher organization and school administration, with guidelines established for negotiations regarding salaries and working conditions. Both NEA and AFT regard commitment to mutual agreement as a crucial factor in a negotiating relationship. Of 419 written policy agreements analyzed, only 36 (8.5 percent) were jointly signed. The remaining 383 were products of unilateral board policy. Subjects for negotiation have included curriculums, methods of instruction, school calendar, insurance, dismissal of classes, and related nonsalary issues. Community financial support of education, budgeting allotment priorities, academic training as a determinant for teacher-advancement, and rotation of teaching with nonteaching assignments have been special areas of conflict. While the teacher strike is currently regarded as a unilateral impasse resolution procedure, collective bargaining is rapidly becoming a system of bilateral negotiations between public employers and employee organizations. The AFT, centering its organizational work in a number of the nation's largest cities, is more inclined to consider conflict in the school system inevitable than is the NEA. (JK)

Teacher Associations, School Administration, Collective Negotiation, Teacher Strikes.

Wildman, Wesley A.

"What Prompts Greater Teacher Militancy?"

The American School Board Journal, 154: 27-32, March, 1967.

In a survey of the 6,000 largest school systems in the United States, 1,700 reported some form of collective negotiations. NEA affiliates were teacher representatives in the majority of cases. AFT dominated the larger urban systems, however, and difference between the organizations in terms of total teachers represented was not great. An analysis of agreements between teacher representatives and administration suggested that salary and working conditions dominated collective negotiations in the systems surveyed. Strictly professional matters -- in-service training, instruction, and curriculum -- had not received broad attention. Wildman condones the strike in education, but warns that it can be abused. He questions whether an impasse can be broken in absence of incentives for settlement. Reason, not power, says the author, should be the instrument of impasse resolution. Collective bargaining should play a role in the public sector different from that which has evolved in the private sector. The nature of the educational enterprise makes many characteristics of private negotiations undesirable. In instances where collective bargaining is well established, however, parallels to private situations have evolved. (SPS)

Collective Negotiations, Labor Unions, Strikes, Teacher Militancy.

Wilsey, Carl E.

"School Site Costs in a Rapidly Expanding Suburban Area"

School Business Affairs, 32(11):271, 274-275, November, 1966.

Purchase of school sites in advance of need is one way to reduce costs. No recommendations from recent research could be found, however, which would indicate how far in advance sites should be purchased or how much money could be saved. A study by the School Planning Laboratory of Stanford University was designed to provide some of the answers. San Mateo County, California was selected as the sample for the study. From 1949 through 1959, the school districts of that county had purchased 106 sites at a total cost of $10,833,292. On the basis of the analyses made, the following conclusions were drawn: (1) If sites had beed acquired at least two years in advance of need, a savings would have resulted. (2) Because of the rapid rise of land costs in the area, sites should have been purchased at least three years in advance to maximize savings. (3) For the area under consideration there was a high, positive correlation between population growth and site costs during the period studied. (4) a moderately high, positive correlation was found between site costs and the development characteristics of the land at the time of purchase. (5) A low, negative correlation was found between site costs and the number of years sites were purchased in advance of need. It was concluded that substantial economies might result from the advance purchase of sites in rapidly growing areas where growth causes land to appreciate more rapidly than the combined influence of tax revenue loss and interest changes on money used to purchase sites. (GWH)

School Building Costs, School Sites, School Finance, Suburban Schools.

Zimmerman, William J. ED 015 632

The Relationship of Initial Cost and Maintenance Cost in Elementary School Buildings

Stanford, California: Stanford University, School Planning Laboratory, July, 1960.

This report is a statistical analysis of the relationship between initial school construction costs and future maintenance costs in the Los Angeles City School District. The study shows an inverse relationship in these costs: Where initial construction costs are low maintenance costs tend to be high. Factors related to initial costs are -- wall construction in offices and classrooms, the number of bidders for each building and addition, the year of the bid, site topography, and total number of square feet of permanent construction in a single bid. These factors tend to reduce the difference between the two costs and counteract the effect on future maintenance cost resulting from material used in construction. Two relationships between these costs are shown -- the larger the proportion of classrooms in a building, the lower the initial and maintenance costs, the larger the proportion of the school building devoted to group activity, the higher the initial cost but the lower the maintenance cost. Methodology for the study, charts, and recommendations are included in the report. (GM)

Construction Costs, Costs, Maintenance, Planning, School Planning.